

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Luncheon

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Miss Anna Field
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Problems in the Selection and Organization of the Course of Study in Social Sciences

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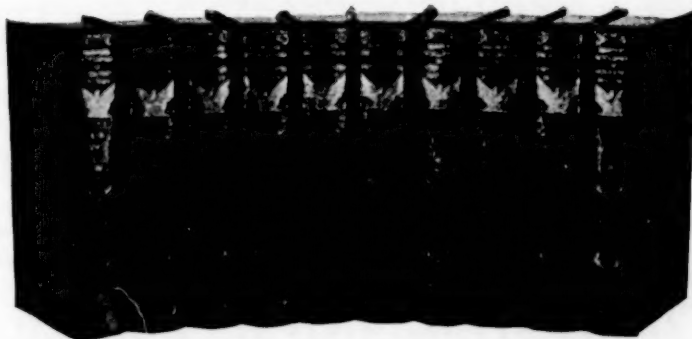
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The Forty-Third Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

REPORTED BY PROFESSOR WITT BOWDEN, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The forty-third annual meeting of the American Historical Association and the various meetings held concurrently at Indianapolis at the end of December may be described (with apologies to academic dignity) as a circus with many rings. About one hundred and thirty persons appeared by name on the literary programs of the American Historical Association alone, and in the discussion of papers contributions were made by many others. The subjects ranged geographically over the world, and in time over pre-history and the historic ages to 1928, not to mention an occasional excursion into the future. Obviously, a brief résumé must suffer from the predilections of the observer as well as from the limitations of space.

Naturally the high points of general interest were at the larger meetings rather than at the conferences devoted to special researches. Particularly notable was the presidential address of Professor J. H. Breasted. In this address and in briefer speeches on other occasions during the sessions, Professor Breasted voiced in a most inspiring manner the newer outlook in historical study and teaching. Archeologists digging in the soil of northern France unearth the rough stone weapons of early men, and beside them are found the fragments of high explosive shells of the World War. This may be viewed as an ominous commentary on man's continued use of his cumulative knowledge for purposes of destruction. But Professor Breasted seized upon the fact as an illustration of the unity of man's experiences. In origin the rough stone artifacts and the metal fragments are separated by about seven hundred thousand years. And yet they lie buried together, symbols of the unity of human history. "The new view of the unity of the human career," he asserted, "is perhaps the greatest achievement of historical study." The appearance of civilization for the first time, he continued, is "the most remarkable event in the history of the universe, so far as it is known to us." His plea was for a broad view, a view comprehending the earlier stages of the cumulative progress of culture, and particularly what he holds to be the earliest conquest of civilization in the Nile valley. The medieval crusades were for the conquest of enemies. "The New Crusade" (the subject of his address) is a return of western man to the ancestral home of his cultural heritage for its recovery and preservation.

During his address Professor Breasted discussed the remarkable progress made within his own memory

in the recovery and interpretation of the records of the earliest civilizations of the ancient Orient. He described the vast amount of work as yet undone in "the still unstudied ancient lands of the Near East" as "one of the gravest responsibilities of present-day historians." He announced that the Oriental Institute has at last secured funds and the support of scholars to such an extent as to enable it to assume this responsibility. The Institute he described as a laboratory organized for the study of man and especially his early career. "I am authorized to announce," he stated, "that as such a laboratory the Oriental Institute is assured a splendid new building, an annual grant which insures the maintenance of its research projects for the next ten years, and an endowment for teaching which will enable the Institute to call to its ranks a group of the leading orientalist and historians of the world."

Ranking next to the address of Professor Breasted in general interest was probably Professor D. R. Fox's "Disposal of Refuse Ideas." This was delivered at the Association's annual dinner on December 29th. On the basis of an extensive study of sources, Professor Fox described the ideas prevailing in academic circles a century ago, in an address notable alike for wit and erudition and for brilliant mastery of the art of public speaking, too often neglected by men of scholarly connections. College presidents at the leading institutions of higher learning in the early nineteenth century were most intensely interested, it appears, in the study and interpretation of abstruse prophetic passages in the Bible and particularly those passages in the Book of Revelations supposed to deal with the overthrow of Anti-Christ, with the second coming of Christ, and with the millennium. With the growth of scientific knowledge and the secularizing of higher education, the present-day addresses of university presidents afford a most remarkable contrast. With the disappearance of the earlier ideas from the academic world, what has become of them? They have sifted through to underlying intellectual strata, where they still survive, was Professor Fox's interesting thesis. Finally, he aroused "the comic spirit" by himself resorting to prophecy concerning the future of such ideas.

Another program that attracted more than usual interest was an innovation at a convention not usually distinguished by departures from traditional modes of behavior. This was the dinner program of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, at which

was presented "Heaven on Earth or the Lights of Harmony, an Extravaganza," written by "Peter Puffem" and published at Philadelphia in 1825. The production proved to be a satirical view of the New Harmony experiment in Indiana, then attracting the attention of the country. The reading of the Extravaganza by Mrs. Carl H. Lieber, of Indianapolis, preceded by a historical introduction by Professor John W. Oliver, afforded an interesting digression from the usual papers and addresses.

Another innovation, and one which might profitably be made a regular feature of such programs, was the advance printing of Professor U. B. Phillips' paper on "The Central Theme of Southern History." The interest evident in the discussion of the paper was no doubt in a measure due to the somewhat controversial or provocative nature of its thesis (the maintenance of racial ascendancy). At the same time, if those expected or expecting to take part in a discussion have opportunity to read a paper in advance of its presentation, the discussion is more likely to be pertinent. Whether or not this particular conference proved the thesis of a central theme of southern history, the subject afforded a central theme for the conference, and this introduced unity and sustained interest often lacking when several papers on varied subjects are presented at a simple conference.

To American history, including the colonial era, nine sessions were devoted. A distinctive aspect of the sessions was the unusual interest in the Revolution. This renewed interest may be partly due to recent additions to materials for study available in America, notably in the Clements Library at the University of Michigan. One of the papers presented was by Professor R. G. Adams, of the Clements Library, who has made a preliminary survey of British Headquarters Papers and the Papers of Lord Germain. The paper, which was read by Professor Lingelbach, described Germain as "the man higher up who tried to run the war from a desk chair in London." Burgoyne, whose surrender was the turning-point of the war, was a victim not only of his own military incompetence, but of the carelessness and probably wilful negligence of his superiors. At a luncheon conference presided over by Professor W. T. Root, various aspects of colonial and revolutionary history were discussed informally and entertainingly by Professors Greene, Morison, Carter, and others. Reference to some of the other papers in American history will be made in later paragraphs.

A single conference devoted to English history exclusively may perhaps be viewed as an indication of a tendency away from nationalistic history. In the several conferences on medieval and modern European history, the papers generally dealt with subjects which had little dependence on national boundary lines. Probably the subject of most general interest in medieval history was the medieval manor. Here, as in the case of Professor Phillips' "Central Theme of Southern History," there was a worth-while innovation. The paper on this topic, by Professor Nellie Neilson, was presented in synopsis and distributed in

advance on application to Dr. C. B. Coleman, Chairman of the Committee on Program. A new project in European history, originated by members of the American Historical Association and having the Association's approval, is the *Journal of Modern History*, to be published by the University of Chicago Press and edited by a board under the direction of Professor B. E. Schmitt. The first number is expected to appear in the course of the next few weeks.

The tendency to minimize the nationalistic element in history found expression in the consideration of larger geographical areas, as the West Indies, and Latin America, and in attention to such phases of history as run athwart the political boundaries.

The recent intensified interest in the West Indies was evidenced by a conference presided over by Professor E. J. Benton. Professor L. J. Ragatz, whose prize essay on West Indian history has recently been published (the first volume to be financed by the Association's "revolving" fund), read a paper on "Absentee Landlordism in the British Caribbean from 1750 to 1833," pointing out the causes and consequences of absenteeism. With the rising price of sugar and other products, the prosperity of the planters after 1740 led to a homeward drift, first of the children of planters for an English education, and later of the planters themselves for the enjoyment in England of the fruits of prosperity. But absenteeism proved to be so uneconomical that in combination with keener competition the owners of estates generally lost them to creditors. Absenteeism resulted in economic decline, political demoralization, and social degeneracy. Other topics discussed were "Spanish Reaction to Foreign Aggressions in the Caribbean to 1680," by Professor R. D. Hussey, "The Reaction in England and America to the Capture of Havana," by Professor N. V. Russell, and "Commercial Relations between the United States and the Dutch West Indies, 1783 to 1789," by Professor A. L. Kohlmeier.

The study of Latin-American history, which has made such remarkable progress in the United States in recent years, was represented by certain papers more or less incidentally connected with the subject, as Professor A. T. Volwiler's "Benjamin Harrison and the Venezuelan Arbitration, Paris, 1899," but mainly by two conferences presided over respectively by Professors W. S. Robertson and I. J. Cox. Research papers were presented by Professors V. A. Belander, J. L. Mecham, and Mary W. Williams, and several reports were rendered. Professors J. A. Robertson and C. W. Hackett discussed the problems of the Inter-American Historical Series. Professor A. C. Wilgus outlined plans for the proposed bibliography dealing with Hispanic America. The resources of the Library of Congress in Spanish transcripts, facsimiles, and manuscripts were described by Mr. Thomas P. Martin of the library staff.

Another bibliographical topic of interest was discussed by Mr. A. W. Hummel, of the Library of Congress, in his paper, "What Chinese Historians Are Doing in Their Own History," presented during the conference on the Far East. While western historians are still somewhat uncritically overempha-

sizing the importance of the Chinese classics as historical sources, the Chinese themselves are applying to their own historical records the critical methods of western historians. It is perhaps not generally known that one of the most magnificent collections of Chinese sources is now accessible in Washington.

In addition to bibliographical questions discussed in connection with Latin America and other special fields at the general conferences devoted to those fields, there were several conferences dealing specifically with bibliography. Criticism of sources was represented by an ingenious paper by Professor F. M. Anderson on "Who Wrote 'The Diary of a Public Man,' Amos Kendall, Henry Wikoff, or X?" and by spirited discussions contributed by a number of other scholars. At a luncheon conference on the Library of Congress, Dr. Jameson discussed the work of the Manuscripts Division and referred hopefully to the prospects of the resources of the Division becoming even more serviceable to historians. At a conference on public archives, Mr. G. S. Godard of the Connecticut State Library presented a paper on "The 1928 Legislation Relating to Public Archives and Records." He stated that "public records are a public trust," and reported that in recognition of this principle eleven states had passed eighty-five acts, laws, or resolutions dealing with official documentary materials during the year. While conditions are often far from satisfactory, alike as to the preservation and the accessibility of records, he reported that "it is most gratifying to note the increasing care and interest in this department of state government for dealing with public records"—a tendency "evident in all parts of the country." In this connection may be noted the fact that at the business meeting reassuring reports were read as to the progress and prospects of more adequate facilities at Washington for the preservation and use of national documents. At a joint meeting of the American Historical Association and the Bibliographical Society of America, various bibliographical projects were discussed. The most notable was probably a bibliography of water transportation. This project is an illustration of the tendency evident throughout the meetings to emphasize economic and social history, and it is hoped that more effective co-operation may be attained between the Association and such organizations as the Business History Society, which has ambitious plans for the salvaging and preservation of business records.

The smarter fashions in historical thought in recent years have been cut to the patterns of diplomacy and biography. If this year's program is a valid indication of the present tendency, the vogue is changing. There were several papers dealing with biographical and diplomatic subjects, to be sure, but in the multitude of papers presented these were numerically unimportant. Even the biographical and diplomatic papers tended toward economic phases, as Professor J. A. James' "Oliver Pollock, Financier of the Revolution in the West," Professor E. D. Ross' "Lincoln and Agriculture," Professor J. C. Parish's "John Stuart and the Indian Boundary Line," Professor C. W. Rife's "Ethan Allen, an Interpretation" (deal-

ing largely with Allen's landed interests), and Professor H. C. M. Wendel's "Protégé System in Morocco." The last mentioned paper dealt with a new kind of economic imperialism—the revival in principle, but under a new name of the discredited system of capitulations and extra-territorial rights of a strong nation in a weaker country.

Some of the more notable papers in economic and cultural history have already been mentioned, as Professor Neilson's "Medieval Manor," Professor Ragatz' "Absentee Landlordism in the British Caribbean," and Professor Phillips' "Central Theme of Southern History." There were many other papers of this type. In ancient history, for example, one is reminded of the papers by Professor J. M. P. Smith, J. Morgenstein, and S. Zeitlin dealing with Hebrew thought and society, and of Professor W. E. Caldwell's "Age of Pericles: a Social and Economic Interpretation." At the English history conference, three of the four papers dealt with social and economic history. Professor J. U. Nef's discussion of "The Relation of the English Coal Industry in the Seventeenth Century to the Growing Power of the Town Merchant" seems particularly worthy of mention. It was a foretaste of his forthcoming work on the coal trade of the seventeenth century, and it was a revelation of the long-standing nature of the chaotic conditions still prevailing in the utilization of the most important natural resources. The modern problems of the coal industry are an outgrowth of earlier unco-ordinated and unregulated conditions. Such studies reveal by implication the shortcomings of even such masterpieces of historical writing as the works of J. R. Gardiner on the Stuart period in often failing to delve beneath the surface of political and biographical records.

Another paper illustrating what seems to be a renewed trend of thought in the direction of "social conditions and the life of the common man" was Professor J. G. Randall's discussion of "The Interrelation of Social and Constitutional History." Law he defined broadly as "order in society." Economic and social questions "are the chief burden of legislation and of court decisions. The Supreme Court today is to a large degree a regulator of conditions in the industrial world." The effectiveness of constitutional guarantees as to such matters as free speech, free press, fair trials, and religious equality is "a social question" and depends on "the social mind." Social control must be by constitutional methods or else by some substitute, as "direct action" or some form of violence. Hence the profound importance to every one of "the constitutional experience and governmental attitudes of a people."

Another paper in the field of social history was Professor R. H. Shryock's "Origins and Significance of the Public Health Movement in the United States." This paper was of general interest for more than one reason. Professor Shryock is the holder of the first research fellowship under the endowment for research donated to the Association by Mrs. Beveridge in memory of the late Senator Beveridge. The

paper on the public health movement is in a neglected, but important field of study and is an intimation of what is to be hoped for in the way of a comprehensive study. On the basis of a preliminary survey, Professor Shryock outlined the history of the movement and analyzed its accomplishments. There has been a practical elimination of infectious fevers in temperate climates; a significant extension of sanitation in the tropics; a gradual, but incomplete mastery of endemic diseases such as hookworm and tuberculosis; and a fall in the mortality rate as a result of child hygiene. In spite of a word of caution as to dogmatic conclusions and over-optimism, he asserted that the public health movement has been a necessary factor in making possible our present-day urban civilization.

A strikingly large proportion of the other papers, including those presented at two conferences on agricultural history, dealt with economic and social subjects. But even more significant was the emphasis on the correlation of history and other social studies, and the co-ordination of social studies in high school and college. The papers by Professor R. F. Nichols and F. A. Shannon at the conference on "The College and Research" put emphasis on opportunities for research in economic and cultural history. There were two conferences of the Association's Committee on History and Other Social Studies in the Schools, one presided over by the chairman of the committee, Professor Krey, and the other by Professor Lingelbach, also a member of the committee.

This committee has been at work for some time, and it published a report of some length in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March, 1927. It is now the belief of the committee that a reorganization of social studies is necessary. This view is based on the fact that in recent years "nearly all young people of school age are continuing their studies through high school," in contrast with an earlier relatively small proportion of students. Formerly the high school was largely a place of preparation for college. With the changed conditions, the high school is confronted primarily with the problem of preparing students not for college, but rather for immediate entry into the varied occupations for which college training is not required. High school work in the social studies should, therefore, aim at "effective citizenship" for the masses of high-school students and not at specialized training in preparation for a college career. But this means that a smaller group, consisting mainly of those who expect to enter college, will not have adequate training for college work unless some special provision is made for them.

The view that a sharp differentiation is necessary between the type of instruction needed by pre-college students and by those not expecting to enter college has met with some opposition. But everyone recognizes that the high schools are finding it increasingly difficult to keep pace with rapid changes in the world about them, and the need of readjustments is denied by no one. Indeed, educational institutions at all levels are experiencing a profound need for greater

flexibility and adaptability in the rapidly shifting scene of the machine age.

For the further study of such problems, the committee has secured from the Carnegie Corporation a grant of \$50,000. It is estimated that this will finance the first year's work of a five-year survey.

Interest in the newer problems of teaching in colleges arising out of increased enrollments and out of more recent points of view concerning the relative importance of cultural history found expression in a conference on the problems of Freshman history instruction under the chairmanship of Professor A. H. Noyes. This was followed by an informal organization of those interested, for the purpose of continuing the discussions and of co-operating with Professor Krey's Committee on History and Other Social Studies in the Schools. At this conference the interesting and somewhat provocative suggestion was made by Professor R. M. Tryon that history teaching has attained a higher level of efficiency in the high schools than in the Freshman and Sophomore years in college. He thinks the colleges should emulate the better high schools, and should adopt, in one form or another, the junior college idea. The problem of the orientation course was discussed by Professor Heald, of Rutgers College, on the basis of statistical data compiled by him.

In connection with the general question of problems and their solution, a timely warning was suggested that in our fast-moving age we can hardly expect to arrive at final solutions, because the problems themselves are not final problems. Our "objective," to use a much abused word, should be the attainment of a flexible, adaptable attitude of mind in understanding varied and changing situations, and in meeting them intelligently as they arise by utilizing to the best advantage the available means at our disposal. Problems vary and means for their solution vary. Regimentation of instruction in accord with a preconceived pattern, whether the pattern is original or borrowed, is hardly conducive to the best results.

It is none the less true that the age of individualism, alike in teaching and in research, is rapidly being modified by the advantages of co-operation and co-ordination. Additional evidence of this tendency was afforded at the business meeting. The Association itself is a sort of co-ordinating "trade" association. Its co-operation with the National Council for Social Studies, the American Council of Learned Societies, the Oriental Institute, and similar societies, as well as with such foundations as the Carnegie Institution and the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Foundation, stands out as one of the truly significant developments of recent years. At the business meeting the Secretary, Professor Dexter Perkins, referred to various instances of co-operative effort. *Social Science Abstracts* is a new publication consisting of summaries of periodical articles and later to include abstracts of books and documents. It is to be cumulative, and elaborately indexed. This undertaking the Secretary mentioned as "one of the greatest pieces of co-operative effort." He also spoke of encourag-

ing progress being made by those in charge of the *Dictionary of American Biography* and of the *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*. Other instances of fruitful co-operation are the work of the International Committee of Historical Sciences, the *International Yearbook of Historical Bibliography*, and the making of transcripts from foreign archives.

For the promotion of co-operative activities as well as for the encouragement of research by individual scholars it will be remembered that an endowment campaign was undertaken some time ago. Professor H. J. Carman, Secretary of the Endowment Committee, reported that the fund had reached a total of \$224,017.42. Indiana, he reported, was far ahead of every other state with subscriptions greatly in excess of its quota. The chairmanship of the Endowment Committee was accepted by Mr. Ivy Lee. In a telegram to the Association he pledged his enthusiastic aid in the continued work of securing funds.

In addition to the general endowment fund there are various special funds. One of these ought to be brought especially to the attention of those who may be interested in the publication of works of scholarship not likely to appeal to publishers on a commercial basis. This is the revolving publication fund under the control of a committee headed by Professor Cheyney, of the University of Pennsylvania.

The Membership Committee, of which Professor R. F. Nichols is chairman, reported continued growth in membership. The committee has been reorganized, with power to appoint local representatives for the purpose of bringing the Association to the attention of all those who may be interested in the study or teaching of history.

It will be remembered that upon the retirement of Dr. Jameson as editor of the *American Historical Review*, Professor D. C. Munro was induced to assume editorial responsibility for one year. It was hoped that announcement could be made of a permanent arrangement with an endowment for financing the *Review* at its present location, but at the time of the business meeting, negotiations were still in progress.

The local arrangements were generally admirable. The committees headed by Messrs. Coleman, Fesler, and Rice, and the management of the Claypool Hotel, are to be congratulated for successfully facilitating those personal and social contacts which are often more worth while than the formal features of the convention. At the Columbia Club, the Prophyseum, and the John Herron Art Institute, the members were most pleasantly entertained. The sessions of the next annual convention will be held at the University of North Carolina and Duke University.

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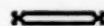
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Thirty Years after the Committee of Seven

BY PROFESSOR A. C. KREY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

It is reported that the American Historical Association has received a grant with which to undertake a thorough investigation of history and related social studies in the schools. The teaching of history has always been a major concern of the Association. For many years, however, its standing committee for this task has been concerned with remedial and palliative measures. Gaps in the school program have been filled, courses have been modified, portions condensed and other portions extended to meet the more insistent demands of newer forces. But the ground plan has remained substantially as it was so well laid by the Committees of Seven and Eight, which began their work some thirty-odd years ago. The problem which any proposed investigation must face is to determine whether those foundations can still be used or whether new foundations must be dug to support a structure adequate for the needs of the next generation.

The first duty would seem to be consideration of conditions as they are today as compared with those which existed then. Thirty years affords a perspective of consequence, even to one accustomed to gaze down the vista of a thousand years. The first matter to engage attention is the school itself, since the problem is one of providing for the needs of the school. The school of thirty years ago consisted of two principal parts, the elementary school of eight grades and the high school of four years. The first was regarded as universal, the second still largely as a college preparatory institution.

What is the situation today? Everyone is aware of the growth of enrollment in the high schools. College classes have reflected it in the increased enrollment in our higher institutions. The community has become aware of it by the multiplication of secondary school units. In many schools the four-year high school has been superseded by a junior high school and senior high school. More recently there has been added another unit called the junior college, which is gradually filtering into the community consciousness. Most recently there has appeared in the far west still another administrative arrangement referred to as yet only by number though destined probably also to have a name. This is the 6-4-4 plan, in which the two upper grades of the old elementary school and the two lower grades of the old high school are combined in one unit and the two upper grades of the old high school and the two lower grades of the college form another unit.

These upper levels of instruction have been referred to as grades without any marked protest, scarcely the perceptible wrinkling of a single brow. The use of that term would have been regarded as a mild insult by those of us who entered high school when the Committee of Seven rendered its report.

We had graduated from the grade schools and were entering upon a new dignity as freshmen in the high school, with four years of collegiate class nomenclature ahead of us. Today, however, it is becoming quite common to refer to pupils of the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades. Reference is beginning to be made likewise to the 13th and 14th grades. It may appear trivial to dwell thus on what must seem to some a mere verbal quibble. On the other hand, it may be symptomatic of a significant development.

Passing now from school units to school enrollment, the perspective of thirty years presents further changes. Enrollment in the elementary school or its equivalent was then regarded as a universal requirement. Those of lower mental ability might linger along the way and drop out at the end of the sixth grade, but every child of ordinary intelligence was expected to complete the eight grades. The first great parting of the ways occurred at that point. The great majority did not go to high school. Those who did had ambitions of reaching college. There was considerable sifting, and only a fraction completed the four years of the high school, but virtually all who did so, expected to enter college, and nearly 90 per cent. of them did enter collegiate institutions. This was the situation when the Committee of Seven did its work.

Today the enrollment figures in one of the large states show as high as 75 per cent. of all of high school age actually enrolled in the schools. Smaller areas in unusually favored places show an even greater percentage. Without afflicting you with endless figures and statistics, this situation may be briefly summarized as relatively true of the whole country. The increased enrollment in the high schools or upper grades is a common phenomenon, true in the North and in the South, true in urban and rural communities, true of colored, as well as of whites, true in areas settled by recent immigrants, as well as those occupied principally by native stock. The difference is largely one of degree, and in many instances that difference is wiped out by the greater rate of increase among those elements which were otherwise more backward. This change is moving forward with greatest rapidity at the present time.

The evidence furnished by enrollment figures confirms the impression derived from the changes in school units and the use of the term grade through the old high school, if not further. The whole population is expected to attend school through twelve grades, as it was thirty years ago through eight. Universal education has advanced four years at least, and it may appear to have advanced six years before this new study of history and the social sciences is concluded. That is a prospect to ponder thought-

fully, a condition never equalled on such a scale in any other country or at any other time.

Well, what of it? to borrow the cynic's rejoinder to any observation. The answer is much that concerns us as teachers, whether on the secondary or collegiate level. In the first place, it means that the high schools, today and henceforth, have to deal with the whole spread of mental ability instead of the select few with academic ambitions who composed their student body a generation ago. The latter are still there and the need for selection and training is just as great as it ever was. In fact, the absolute number of those looking forward to college and professional training in history is probably much greater than it was thirty years ago. That statement is possibly even more true of the legal and social science professions which history serves in a supplementary fashion.

But while the absolute numbers of the specially interested has increased, their proportion to the whole body of high school students has decreased much more rapidly. To the school administrator their proportion has reached so low a point that in applying a uniform treatment to all he can no longer recognize very seriously the special claims of the pre-college group.

And yet, all this while, education for effective participation in society has become increasingly important. School administrators have recognized this fact for some years—actually they are unanimous in this opinion. They desire to have all the pupils receive as much of such training as it is possible to give them under the conflicting and confusing circumstances which surround our secondary schools at the present time.

The necessity of weighing and adjusting the secondary curriculum to such new and complex considerations is a problem which sounds more like higher mathematics than history. All the pupils in the schools are to be taught instead of a fraction. That is one element in the problem. Next, all are to be given as much instruction for effective membership in adult society as it is possible for the schools to give within the time allowed. That is another element in the problem. At the same time it is deemed desirable to increase the efficiency of high school instruction for college preparation. That is the third element. The problem is to accomplish all of these desirable results at one and the same time. It does not require very much reflection to realize that the combination of these three elements in one process is a problem of real magnitude.

It has sometimes been thought that school administrators have become hostile to the aim of preparation for college. That is not true. Most of them regard it as a highly desirable aim. They feel, however, that before they can devote much energy to it they must first grapple with the more immediate and larger problem of providing for the instruction of the great mass of students in the ways of society. They need the assistance of the subject-matter specialists in helping to solve it—to discover the most efficient material and methods of instruction to attain this

universal end. The Council of the American Historical Association has recognized this problem of the schools both in the character of the committee assigned to work at the task and in its approval of the plans which that Committee formulated. It is hoped and confidently expected that the Association as a whole will take the same broad stand and do all in its power to help solve it.

What can the members of the Association do?

First of all, there is need for thorough study of those forces which have developed in the past generation or two and which affect the teaching of social subjects in the schools. Such forces are both general and local and both should be studied. Some of the energy devoted to thesis investigations by graduate students, preferably such as have had teaching experience, might very profitably be devoted to such special inquiries.

Next, there is the problem of testing the results of instruction. It is customary to test the work of each course largely in terms of the informational content of the course. Such testing will always be in demand and will doubtless be used in determining the pupil's fitness to do further work in the field. There is great room for improvement even here. The experience of the Classical Investigation and more recently the Modern Foreign Language Investigation has demonstrated the possibilities of the new type tests for the more efficient measurement of results of instruction. Neither group felt any great confidence in this device at the outset. Continued use convinced them of the value of this type of test, however, and their experience may safely be used as a guide.

But there is another task which deserves greater emphasis at this time and in this connection. This arises from the marked trend of all pupils to remain in school throughout the high school years. The upper grades have become as crowded as the elementary grades. Partly as a consequence of this crowding, though largely due to other factors, there is less opportunity for free election in the choice of subjects. Hence, instead of the heterogeneous background represented in any classroom, so heterogeneous that the teacher had to operate on the theory that the pupils had had no previous training, there is now more homogeneity. The pupils have had the same previous training, or lack of it, and this fact is even more true in the social studies, in view of the importance attached to them by school administrators.

The effect of all this development is to make each course in this field a link in the chain of training in social subjects and no longer an entity in itself. Society is interested in the final result, less in the function of each course. This does not minimize the importance of each link, but emphasizes the connection of each link both with the work which preceded and that which is to follow. Those who weld the individual links must bear this in mind.

Unfortunately, we have had little experience in recent years in testing cumulative results. Such values cannot be stated in terms of specific informa-

tion which runs the full range from stories of ancient mythology to problems of American Democracy and from Ancient History to community life problems. The values which recur and whose recurrence constitute the chain, are those to which this information contributes, and which must be stated in abstract terms.

It was in an effort to state some of these values that the Committee on History and Other Social Studies drew up the list of objectives which was printed in the last number of the *American Historical Review* in the announcement of the December meeting. This list is tentative and was intended to serve as a guide for the construction of tests. The objectives are not new—most of them are included among the values claimed for everyone of the subjects in the social science field. It remains to discover whether or not they are realized in actual instruction and, if they are, to what extent in each link of the chain.

There are those who feel that these abstract values, acquired by dint of varied repetition as course succeeds course, constitute the most important values in this field. Certainly not much of the information acquired in any given course is long retained. If there is this residuum of dynamic knowledge indicated in the list of abstract values even after the information by means of which it was built up is lost, there may be real cause for rejoicing. It will at least satisfy the optimistic epigram that education is that which remains after the facts learned in school are forgotten.

1. Understanding of important institutions by means of which society functions. Principles and ideals are included.

This is the most generally accepted function of social studies, and the most precise. Understanding and information are not synonymous; and tests should seek for *understanding*. To test this objective effectively, it will be necessary to break it up into parts.

Political institutions—legal, national, international; principles and ideals.

Economic institutions, local and general; principles and ideals.

Educational institutions—principles and ideals.

Esthetic institutions—principles and ideals.

Recreational institutions—principles and ideals.

These institutions, principles and ideals, are to be drawn from the standard textbooks and syllabi at research centers. The material thus collected is to be used as the basis for the construction of tests.

2. Skill in the use of sources of information about society.

A student who has taken courses in history and other social studies is expected to know how to find and how to use intelligently and cautiously, even critically, the various sources of information relating to current society.

Such sources include:

Current gossip—oral and printed.

Reasoned discussion—oral and printed.

Social activities—real or pictures.

Material achievement—in use or relic.

The skills necessary to deal with such sources range from simple physical findings and manipulation to subtle critical analysis. A series of tests ranging from the simple to the more complex phases of these skills must be constructed. Some are already available.

3. Points of view, interests and attitudes.

Points of view, interests and attitudes are usually accepted as outcomes of the teaching of these subjects. All propaganda rests upon that belief. Such attitudes are difficult enough to define, and still more difficult to test or measure. A promising beginning has been made and it seems worth while to support further effort. Here we must recognize what we too often ignore, the power and extent of the emotional element in all lasting impressions and its relation to character and conduct.

Among the points of view, attitudes and interests, are the following:

A perspective on current affairs. The task of affording pupils a basis for viewing events about them in a reflective manner is shared by nearly all of the social studies. This value arises more specifically from the comparisons with or contrast to similar activities in the past or in distant lands. Tests for this value must be constructed out of present situations.

Historical mindedness. Usually characterized as the habitual association of social occurrences with the time at which they took place. It means more fully a recognition of society as a constantly changing complex, whose details vary as the complex changes.

Locational mindedness. The habitual association of social occurrences with the place in which they occurred.

Concern for the common good. Patriotism is a more common designation of this objective. It involves training the individual to recognize his own welfare in the welfare of the group, or to respect the common welfare as a desirable end in itself.

Tolerance, racial, religious, national, social. Related closely to the preceding, it deals more specifically with certain prejudices which seem inherent and lead to injustice. It is believed that acquaintance and understanding of other races, religions, parties, and social groups will lead to a fairer judgment of them, with resultant benefit to the individual and society.

Leisure time interests. Acquaintance with the social world, past and present, is commonly regarded as capable of arousing in the pupil a passion or interest to find out as much as possible about some congenial topic or groups of topics, whose pursuit will afford

him endless satisfaction and occupy his leisure pleasantly. With increased leisure, a common condition, this objective becomes increasingly important.

4. Social orientation.

A systematic knowledge of the achievements and activities of society. As commonly stated, one of the functions of history and all the social studies in the schools is to enable the pupil to place himself in society, to know what society is and how he fits into it. This group of studies at the same time offers an acquaintance with a variety of social activities and achievements and their interrelationship. This value lies in the comprehensive survey of society, both chronological and geographical, and must be tested on that basis.

5. Activities. Actual participation.

Most teachers, and the public generally, believe that instruction in the social studies in the schools contributes directly to the conduct of the pupils when they become responsible members of society.

A direct test of such an outcome offers insurmountable difficulties—difficulty in locating the pupils when they have reached that stage—difficulty in establishing the definite connection between the later conduct and the earlier instruction.

It may be only an ideal—a wishful hope, but the aim of having the pupil translate something of his formal instruction into his actions seems important enough to defy failure to measure or test.

Tests which will measure such values, however, remain to be constructed. Some help will be afforded in recent developments of the new type testing technique. It will be necessary, however, to ransack the whole range of teaching from the elementary grades through the post-graduate seminar for clues. The latter may actually yield many more devices and questions than any of us suspect. The master who was able to dismiss from his seminar a student who merely asked a question as thereby disqualified was in possession of an economical testing technique of the utmost value in this problem.

The desired tests when devised, must necessarily be constructed in the form of principles which can easily be applied to the varieties of informational content which the different courses possess. There is a challenge here to the best talent of the teaching profession. Once the principles are laid down, the applications will be a relatively simple matter, as in the story of Columbus and the egg.

The speaker realizes how dismal some of the trends revealed in this retrospect of thirty years must seem to teachers who have been contending with a falling intellectual average. For a long time past it has been the annual autumn experience of those who must gauge their instruction to the level of a large class to have to set that gauge lower each time. How paltry

some of that instruction seems to us, as we compare it with the similar course we ourselves took! Nevertheless, that gauge promises to continue its descent sometime yet before it finally reaches bottom. It cannot, however, continue indefinitely. It must stop when those classes enroll the complete normal distribution of intelligence, and that promises to take place within the next generation.

Dismal as this may seem—there are compensations. The students of true academic capacity are still there. Actually they are there in greater numbers than they were thirty years ago. The prospect of having from four to six additional years in which to select from the whole population those genuinely fitted to do the advanced work in any of the professions must yield some comfort. If society can salvage those whom accident or untoward circumstance formerly thrust aside in addition to those self-selected few of earlier times, there is a real gain. Haphazard selection may be eliminated and society benefit from the discovery and training of all of its best—if we can devise proper methods of achieving this. Presumably society is just as much concerned to exploit all of its best as well as to give to all the utmost that schooling can accomplish.

The task before the Association in this investigation of history and other social studies in the field is many-sided. This paper has concerned itself only with a few of the more immediate aspects of the problem. These may be re-capitulated briefly. The first task is to test the results of instruction in each course now offered. Are the values claimed for each actually attained and to what extent? The second is to devise tests to measure the cumulative values of instruction in the social studies. To what extent does each course now offered contribute to the whole? The third is to discover methods for the selection and training of the best minds while at the same time serving the many. Let me repeat these are but aspects of the large task for whose investigation the planning committee has fixed a minimum of five years.

A part of the task is already won through the grant which the Carnegie Corporation has just made to the Association. The sum is not large—how curious such a statement would have seemed to the Committee of Seven!—but it is sufficient to make possible the machinery of co-operation through which the investigation must be conducted. The problem is the problem of the teachers and the schools and can be accomplished only by them. But with the help which the grant of the Carnegie Corporation affords, it becomes possible for the teacher and the school, however humbly circumstanced, to draw upon the specialists' help, whether that be in the field of History or Psychology, Political Science, Educational Research, Economics, Sociology or Geography. A co-operative service bureau is thus established through which the teachers and the schools in one community at work on this problem may avail themselves of any progress which may have been made on it in another community.

George Washington as Santa Claus Again

BY DR. JOHN C. FITZPATRICK, WASHINGTON, D. C.

George Washington was presented in the guise of Santa Claus by Professor Louis K. Koontz, in an interesting article in the December number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, based upon one of the annual invoices of supplies ordered from Mount Vernon. A part of this annual purchase consisted of clothing material and toys for the Custis children. A quarter of a century later we have another record in which Washington appears more definitely and clearly in the character of the jolly old saint to the next generation of the Custis children, than he does to us in the annual invoices of plantation supplies.

In the Washington Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, where there are, practically, ninety-nine per cent. of the surviving Washington papers, is a memorandum of expense, ignored or forgotten, like the account re-discovered by Professor Koontz in the Huntington Library, of Christmas gifts selected and purchased in person by Washington, for the little Custis children at Mount Vernon in the year 1783. This account, in Washington's handwriting, is tucked away in a leathern, pocket-memorandum book of personal expenses which, in many ways, is the most interesting and valuable of all similar records, for it contains George Washington's memoranda of personal expenditures for May and June, 1775, up to the time of his election by Congress to be Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Armies, in the latter month. The entries cease at this point and the entire period of the Revolutionary War is passed over in silence and the record begins again, with no blank pages intervening, in the winter of 1783, when the war was over, Independence won and the Continental Armies disbanded. (The official expenses during the war, 1775-1783, are, of course, recorded elsewhere.)

John Parke Custis and "Patey" Custis, the two children who figure in Professor Koontz's discussion of the invoice of 1759, were not living when Washington purchased these Christmas presents of 1783. Martha ("Patey") Custis, a delicate child, who captured the heart of Washington, died shortly before the Revolutionary War broke out. John Parke, or "Jacky" Custis, as Washington sometimes called him, grew to manhood and died in the service of his country in 1781, from a camp disease contracted while acting as a volunteer aide-de-camp to his stepfather, during the siege of Yorktown. He had married Eleanor Calvert, of Maryland, and left behind him three girls and one boy. Eliza Parke Custis, then age seven, who later married Thomas Law; Martha Parke Custis, age six, who became the wife of Thomas Peter; Eleanor Parke, better known as "Nelly" Custis, age four, who married Lawrence Lewis, and George Washington Parke Custis, then two years old and the baby of the family, who later became the owner of Arlington. These were the step-

grandchildren of Washington for whom the Christmas presents mentioned in the account were purchased.

Many things and great things happened in America between the Christmas of 1759 of which Professor Koontz wrote, and the Christmas of 1783, and many things had happened to the Virginia farmer who had drawn up that invoice of goods in September of the former year. Virginia had declared herself an independent state and joined with the other struggling commonwealths on the Atlantic seaboard which had foresworn their allegiance to Great Britain; these revolting colonies had formed themselves into the Confederation of the United States of America and confided to the peaceable Virginia planter, George Washington, the task of making successful and armed resistance to Britain's attempt to hold them in subjection. As *General* George Washington, this planter had forced from Great Britain, at the point of the bayonet, a grudging acknowledgment of the independence of the United States and, in 1783, after eight long years of war, he was returning to his beloved Mount Vernon and to the kind of life he desired to live. But first he had to appear before the Continental Congress, then sitting at Annapolis, and resign his commission as General and Commander-in-Chief and, on his way south, after having disbanded the army and taken leave of his officers, he passed through Philadelphia. It is worth noting that with all the multitudinous details of business pressing upon him, incident to closing up the military affairs of an eight years' war, he recollected that Philadelphia was a better place in which to purchase articles than was Baltimore, through which he also had to pass, or Annapolis in which he would probably have to stay for a time. But more than this it is interesting to note that George Washington thought at such a busy time of his step-grandchildren and Christmas. In thus taking time by the forelock, Washington classifies himself as an originator of the modern exhortation to "Do your Christmas shopping early."

It is not possible to analyze the various items of this account of purchases in an entirely satisfactory manner, for we cannot say positively which articles were intended for whom, but we can build up some surmises which will not be far from right and develop some interesting speculation in so doing.

As an indication of the manner in which Washington's mind and feeling worked, even this list of unimportant purchases is satisfying. It will be noticed that the order in which the memoranda are set down, which is doubtless the order in which the purchases were made, places Mrs. Washington first, then come the children and, lastly, in something of a jumble, some purchases for Mount Vernon and for himself.

For Mrs. Washington was purchased a locket at

December -- 1783.

13.	By Sundries to ? in Phil ^a	
	a Locket	2 5.5-
	3 Mah Pok Books	1.10-
	3 Thimbles	9 9
	3 Sashes	1.5.0-
	Dress Cap	2.8-
	Hd th	3.10-
	Handkerchief	1.-
	Childrens Books	4.6
	Whirligig	1.6
	T. Dole	2.6
	Gun	5.-
	Quadrille Boxes	1.17.6
	Flat Box	4.-
	50 y ^{ds} Carpeting	15-
	a 6/-	
	Handle to my Seal	
	a Road y ^{ds} Glap	1.17.6
	By M ^r Harr for a	
	p ^{ts} of Boots	3.15-
	By a Silv ^y Coffee Pot	
	a Temp ^o ae 2 Arms.	37.17.6
	the latter 3 Doh ⁿ	
	Tea Waster	3.0.0
	By an Umbrella	1.15-
	By 7 p ^{ts} Silk Hose	9.10.6
	By a than 9. Box	3.9
	a 91. 3.0 eq ^{ts} to	91. 3.0
		72.18.5

£5. 5s. (This would be about \$25.00 as we count it now.) Each of the three little Custis girls were to have a small pocketbook, a thimble and a sash. Presumably each of these gifts cost the same, but we may hope that the pocketbooks and sashes were different in color. Perhaps Washington did not consciously think of the significance of his selection and perhaps we are stretching a point in calling attention to these selections as typical of the George Washington mind, but it is curious how it fits the man's known principles. A pocketbook for thrift, a thimble for industry and a sash for adornment. A complete trilogy of life! The children's books were doubtless for these little girls, as a two-year old boy could hardly have much interest in books, even though he were as precocious a child as George Washington Parke Custis later proved to be. The dress cap was undoubtedly for Mrs. Washington, though that article, as well as the "Hatt" at £3. 10s. (or about \$15.00), is difficult to place. The handkerchief at £1 (or about \$5.00) may have been for Mrs. Washington, for himself or, and this is an interesting speculation, for the widow of John Parke Custis, the mother of the Custis children. We know from Lund Washington's letters to the General that the Custis children were living at Mount Vernon, but it is not certain that their mother was there with them, awaiting Washington's home-coming. She may have been at her father's seat in Prince George County, Maryland, so we are not able to settle the point of the handkerchief, or of the dress-cap, which would have been just as appropriate for a young matron as for Mrs. Washington. The whirligig, fiddle and gun were the toys for George Washington Parke Custis, the baby, and their cost, about \$2.00, was certainly a generous outlay, considering the few toys purchasable in America in 1783.

The quadrille boxes require an explanation. Their purchase furnishes another evidence, to add to those we already possess, of Washington's fondness or liking for social games of cards. Quadrille, which has been completely forgotten, was one of the fashionable card games of the later 18th century. It required concentrated attention and possessed a high percentage of chance which could be used to advantage by a skillful player. It was far from simple and contained elements which would appeal to a mathematical mind. The quadrille boxes were probably similar to the bridge sets of the present day, containing the four packs of cards (only forty cards to a pack) and ivory counters, or checks, with which the gains and losses were settled. The fifty yards of "carpetting," the silver coffee pot with Washington's arms engraved thereon and the tea-waiter may be considered as household gifts, though Mrs. Washington must have been well pleased with them. The handles for the letter-seal and the reading glass have an interest for us, for the latter furnishes a check upon Washington's waning eyesight at the age of fifty-one. The boots, umbrella and shaving box have the homely touch; when Washington treated himself to Christmas gifts we could be sure that they would have utilitarian

value. We would very much like to know, but of course we cannot, if this was the green umbrella which the General used on his horseback rides around his Mount Vernon farms, which figures in one of George Washington Parke Custis's flowery descriptions of his step-grandfather. We can only surmise as to the silk hose; more than likely they were for Washington himself, as his usual house-dress at Mount Vernon included close-fitting knee-breeches and silk stockings, but we cannot guess whether these particular hose were white or black; there can be no doubt, however, as to the quality of them, for, at a rough estimate, they cost about \$5.00 a pair.

The entire Christmas expenditure amounted to about \$145.00, as nearly as we can judge the monetary values in terms of today, and of this amount from \$70.00 to \$75.00 was spent upon the actual Christmas gifts. The translation of the total of £91. 3s. 0d. into £72. 18s. 5d. is merely the reduction of the Pennsylvania currency, in which the Christmas gifts were purchased, into that of Virginia, each state, in 1783, still having its own currency which had not been supplanted by the Continental paper dollars and which continued in existence until the introduction of the money of the United States after 1789.

Christmas as a holiday occupied an important place in George Washington's scheme of life at Mount Vernon, and this memoranda of his forethought of it is on a par with other evidence, found in his papers, that he considered church attendance an important factor of the day. His diary notes several occasions on which he attended the Christmas services at old Pohick when the holiday fell upon a week-day.

It will be of interest to the readers of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to compare the handwriting of this account of the year 1783 with that of the account of 1759, facsimiled in the December number. The differences will reveal the development of Washington's penmanship from the somewhat angular character in the earlier years to the rounder, more easily flowing hand which constant writing produced in the later. Washington's handwriting changed from a rather tall, angular letter to a lower, rounder form which was less tiring and more speedy. This change took place during the decade following 1760 and by 1771 or 1772 the familiar Washington chirography had become habitual; from then on the changes were very slight and confined to the formation of individual letters which were altered solely in the interest of ease and speed, but with sacrificing legibility. The occasions when it is difficult to decipher a word written by Washington are rare.

Development of International Attitudes and Understandings in the Secondary School*

BY HOWARD E. WILSON, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

"Education for citizenship" has been made the keynote of this conference, I presume, because it is a fundamental purpose of modern education. With the culmination of that purpose, we who are teachers of the social studies are inherently and peculiarly concerned. But how shall we define the phrase "education for citizenship?" In our age, and for us, it means education for membership in society, membership in a society which is dynamic, democratic, infinitely complex, and widely extended. It means a type of education which will enable successive generations to meet their living needs and to abstract as much happiness from living as is humanly possible. It means education which will fit people to manage efficiently the tremendous heritage of civilization which fifty thousand years of human effort has built up for them—to manage and control that civilization in which their lives must necessarily be cast and over which they are given stewardship.

In order to manage the affairs of civilized existence with the greatest possible efficiency and the least possible friction, the pupils in our schools today must be made familiar with the workings of society; that is, as familiar as we can make them, considering their limitations and ours. They must see the characteristics of our way of living, must comprehend the forces and factors which give us a steadily climbing standard of living, a cumulative and democratized cultural life, widened intellectual horizons, and friendlier relations with our fellows. They must gain a complete view of society; they must see both its accomplishments and its failures, the problems of the modern mode of living, and must be taught to utilize the achievements intelligently and to try to solve the problems.

It is my purpose to raise three questions pertinent to this conception of education for citizenship, and to try to suggest the answers. The first question is fundamental to my subject, and upon the answer to it depends the other two questions. It is this—Is it necessary or wise to include instruction in international affairs in our national program of education for citizenship? The answer, it seems to me, is, inescapably, yes. International intercourse and co-operation have become an integral part of our civilization, and any generation which manages civilization with any degree of efficiency must manage international relations efficiently.

WHY SHOULD WE GIVE INSTRUCTION IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS?

This proposition is so fundamental to what I have to say that further proof of it may be desirable here—

* Address delivered at the eighth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Minneapolis, July 2, 1928.

especially does it seem desirable in view of the tempest in a teapot created in recent months by the politicians of the city in which I happen to live. There are, it seems to me, three valid reasons why instruction on international affairs should be included in our social science curriculum. First, because our whole cultural and social civilization is based upon extensive cultural intercourse among the nations of the world. Second, because our economic order is predicated upon world-commerce both in manufactured commodities and raw materials. Third, because the governments of the modern world, including the government of the United States, have already found it necessary to hold extensive political communication with one another and to develop complex agencies of political co-operation. Many and unmistakable are the facts indicative of these conditions.

First as to the cultural interdependence of modern nations. Our social customs, celebrations, folkways, mores, music, literature, learning, our very language are brought from or affected by national groups other than our own. Art and science know no national boundaries. A few days ago I examined a single page from the catalogue of Victor phonograph records, and found listed there records of musical productions from Italian, French, German, Dutch, Polish, English, Russian, Canadian, Hungarian, Bohemian, Austrian, Swedish, Irish, Norwegian, Danish, and American sources. The songs of sixteen national groups advertised on a single, typical page of the Catalogue of Victor Records is a strong indication, at least, of the extent of international intercourse in the arts. In the sciences the evidence is equally decisive—could we in the United States benefit by the technique of pasteurization, by the work in radium of Madame Curie, by the researches of such physicians as Lister and Jenner if scientific discoveries were restricted to the countries in which they are made? Science, like art, is an international matter, and science is possibly the outstanding characteristic of our social order.

Enough has been said to suggest the cultural interdependence of nations. Turning to the economic foundations of society we find the same international characteristic. We, of the United States, buy goods from every section of the world. Coffee, sugar, spices, silks, fruits—all are brought to us by modern miracles of transportation halfway round the world. If international trade were to cease today our standard of living would drop precipitately. And it would decline not only because we should find ourselves unable to procure the commodities we have come to regard as necessities, but also because within our own country there would result an economic slump with

unemployment and "hard times" of the most stringent character. Do you suppose the Chicago packing plants could continue to employ a hundred thousand men if American dressed meats could not be sold in the markets of Europe and Asia? Would the manufacturers of farm and industrial machinery, of sewing-machines, of radios, continue prosperous if their foreign markets were taken from them? Would our metropolitan newspapers continue to widen their circulation if they could not reach far beyond our national boundary on the north to insure a continued supply of wood for the making of paper?

We may truly say that our economic welfare, in vital part, at least, is dependent upon a steadily augmenting foreign trade, a trade which permits us to buy and sell both manufactured commodities and natural resources. But do not think that this international commerce in which we have millions invested and upon which infinitely more millions depend, will thrive without intelligent guidance! It is dependent upon tariffs, postal rates, cable-service, consular reports, maintenance of peace, suppression of piracy, upon commercial treaties, and the like. Whoever is to guide the destinies of international trade must be intelligent in the matter of international relations—and somewhere in our schoolrooms today are the international merchants, the consuls, the tariff-makers, and the treaty-makers of tomorrow.

Out of this social and economic intercourse and interdependence among the citizens of modern nations grow international politics. Questions arise daily which require formal international co-operation for their answering. Where is this boundary line? Can American fishermen fish in Canadian waters? What postal service is needed and is available between the United States and Brazil, or Italy, or Australia? On what basis shall foreign ships be allowed to use the Panama Canal—or the Suez Canal? How can we insure an uninterrupted supply of coffee from Central and South America? What rights have American citizens traveling in Turkey—or Chinese students resident in the United States? Such questions as these are presented to our State Department in Washington with multitudinous frequency. In trying to arrange for their answer, the United States is forced to deal formally and officially with other nations. International politics exist.

International politics, then, necessarily involve the United States government. Such representative agencies as ambassadors, ministers, commissions, and consuls are repeatedly sent from our capital to the capitals of other nations in order to make agreements, or conventions, or to conclude treaties. In her 152 years of independence, the United States has been signatory to more than 700 treaties, the greatest part of which have been ratified within the last thirty years. The United States is inextricably involved in international co-operative action, into which she has been forced as a government by the international enterprises and activities of her citizens. With Harold Rugg, writing in the *26th Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, we may say, "...life in America has become compellingly co-

operative....The people of the world are now so linked together that no nation can live to itself; no section lives to itself; no industry lives to itself; no person lives to himself—all are interdependent. Now the school is the only organized agency at all competent to cope with the problem of developing in our youth tolerant understanding of this complicated order."

Enough has been said, I believe, to indicate the answer to my question. Because their private interests and their group, or governmental, interests are involved in international problems, the people of the modern world must be made intelligent regarding international affairs. That, I believe, is a sound principle of curriculum construction. A national program of education for citizenship, such as that to which this Association has pledged itself, must necessarily include in its training, at least, a modicum of instruction in matters of international import.

WHAT SHOULD BE TAUGHT?

The second question I should like to raise is this: Assuming that it is desirable that young Americans become intelligent in matters of world relations, what ought we to try to teach them about this matter in the secondary schools? Obviously, it is impossible and absurd for us to try to make international statesmen out of several million American school children. Neither can we raise up a generation of expert technicians in the legal and social complexities of intergovernmental co-operation. What can we do in the field of general education which will fit citizens of a democracy to manage well the necessary foreign relations of their nation?

The answer to the question can be given here only in the most general terms—terms so general, however, that they are fundamental. We can answer the question only by setting up certain objectives or aims or learnings which it is desirable to have children in the elementary and secondary schools reach. Now what are these specific objectives? In the first place, it seems to me that we must develop or strengthen an attitude of friendly interest in the maintenance of civilized life. The child should come to feel some measure of personal responsibility in maintaining and improving the civilization which he inherits. This attitude of responsible interest in his civilization is the basis upon which we have to work.

In the second place, and co-ordinate with his sense of responsibility, the child must gain an attitude of intelligence toward the fact of international interdependence. He should comprehend the extent to which national and individual welfare is dependent upon world-wide co-operation. Then, in the third place, he should acquire, as a part of his stock of civic information, an elementary knowledge of the manner in which his nation is trying to solve its foreign problems. He ought to know the foreign policy of his government and be able to criticize it in the light of knowledge about the foreign policies of other governments. He ought to know, in a general way, the technique of intergovernmental activity.

These three things, then—(1) a sense of responsibility for maintaining and improving human welfare,

(2) a comprehension of the extent of our interdependence and the need for world-wide co-operation, and (3) an elementary knowledge of the general technique of intergovernmental co-operation—these three objectives seem to me to be of sufficiently vital consequence to warrant their inclusion among the minimal objectives in our program of education for citizenship.

HOW REALIZE OBJECTIVES?

One other question—a practical one growing directly out of what has been said and out of the professional interests which have brought us together here today. Assuming that we *want* to realize the objectives just stated, *can* we realize them? The third question, then, is: How best can we, under existing conditions in the secondary school, realize the objectives pertaining to international intelligence we have set up as desirable?

There are several possibilities in the secondary school for including in the curriculum materials dealing with international matters, one or more of which possible plans may be practicable in the schools with which some of us are connected. Let us consider first the possibility of introducing a new course—a course in international civics—into the social science curriculum. Some authorities argue that this should be done. Indeed, Mr. Pitman B. Potter, of the University of Wisconsin, and Mr. Roscoe L. West, of the Department of Public Instruction in the State of New Jersey, have prepared a textbook which outlines just such a course. The book, with which you may be familiar—to my mind, it is invaluable for teachers of the social studies!—is titled *International Civics*, and it was issued by Macmillan's a few months ago. It is well written, with a wealth of material, and is designed for use as a high school text, presumably for a course of either one or two semesters' duration. The table of contents of the book may outline for us the possible content for a course in international civics. There are chapters on "The Nations," "Empires and Colonies," "International Intercourse," "International Politics," "International Law," "Diplomacy and Treaties," "International Courts, Commissions, and Conferences," "International Federation," "Alliances and Concerts," "Enforcement of International Authority," three chapters dealing with the League of Nations, its origins, structure, and activities, and a final chapter entitled "The American Citizen and the International Problem."

It is proposed by some, then, that a course covering these lines, a course to be called International Civics, should be placed in the schools. But I doubt very seriously the feasibility of the proposal. The curriculum is already overcrowded in the social studies, and most schools will find it impractical, even impossible, to add another course to those already in existence. But that does not mean that we shall ignore the teaching of international matters; neither does it mean that Potter and West's book, or other similar volumes, are useless, for they have another and a vital function, as we shall see shortly.

The second proposal I should like to make involves minor revisions in the content of already existing courses—a practical step which many high schools have already taken with advantage, and one which many others, in my opinion, will find it possible and desirable to adopt. The proposal involves minor revisions in three courses now usually taught in the high school.

In the first place, I think a unit on "The World Community" ought to be included in the citizenship or social civics course now almost universally offered in the junior high school. That course treats of group life; usually it begins with a study of the family group, the school group, the church group, the community group, and the national group. To these groups selected for study should be added another, "The World Group," or "The World Community" in order to round out the outlook on interdependent life which this section of the course is designed to give pupils.

As I said before, many schools have already included this topic or unit in their course of study. A number of textbooks recently published have taken it into account also, and provided materials for it. A good example is the new book of Mr. H. C. Hill's—his *Community Civics*, published by Ginn and Company. Part I of the text is entitled "Group Life"; Chapter VII of Part I is entitled "Our Neighbors in Other Lands," and is a presentation of the community-ship of the entire world. The chapter is divided into four sections—(1) How Nations Depend on One Another, (2) War, (3) Peace, and (4) What We Can Do to Promote World Friendship." The chapter is concretely presented and has been tried out under actual classroom conditions. It represents an excellent and successful attempt to insert in our community life or citizenship courses, the type of unit which will be most serviceable in attaining the objectives we have set up as valuable.

Yet it is not sufficient for our purpose to include only this one unit on international matters in the social science curriculum. In addition to it there can well be reorganization or re-emphasis of some of the materials of our history courses. In the world-history course, offered quite widely in the 10th grade, there is especial opportunity for this type of work. In courses in modern history, the international problems created by the industrial revolution, the international programs pursued by such statesmen as Metternich, Bismarck, Viscount Grey of England, and Edward Benes, of Czechoslovakia, the activities of the various world courts and leagues, may be brought more into the limelight and made to contribute to civic education. In American history the story of the arbitration of the Alabama claims, the issue of imperialism as we faced it at the close of the Spanish-American War, the international aspects of Rooseveltian conservation, the problems and policies incident to America's participation in the Great War and in reconstruction—these and matters like them may be emphasized and re-presented to make their significant contribution toward making the child

acquainted with the true nature of the world he lives in.

In addition, it is possible, and to my mind desirable, to include matters pertinent to international politics and international law in one or more units in the senior high school course, variously called "Modern Problems," or "Problems of Democracy," or "Political Institutions," or "Advanced Civics." It is here in the twelfth grade that the pupil should acquire his stock of civic information about international matters. It is here that the textbook already referred to, the volume by Potter and West, is most useful. A unit or two selecting the essential elements of that text and forming the focal point of pupil's study for three to six weeks could make a commendable contribution toward preparing children for the activities of their mature citizenship. It might be worth while here to suggest the following rough, purely-tentative outline for a unit to be called "International Civics" in the senior course in social science.

- I. The Nations of the Modern World.
 - A. What a nation is; the nations of today.
 - B. Differences and likenesses among nations.
 - C. The problems of colonies and empires.
- II. How the Nations Depend upon one Another.
- III. International Politics.
 - A. Questions and problems arising among nations.
 - B. Diplomatic and consular relations between nations.
 - C. Treaties and treaty-making.
- IV. International Law and Its Enforcement.
 - A. Evolution and character of international law.
 - B. International authority and the League of Nations.
 - C. The United States and international law.

Thus far, in answer to the question of *how to teach* international matters with efficient practicality, we have made and somewhat condemned the proposal to insert a new course into the social science department, and have suggested revisions in the content of the courses in social civics, in history, and in modern problems—changes which many schools have already made and demonstrated as feasible. But both these proposals involve curricular changes, and such changes are difficult to make no matter how desirable they may be. Oftentimes a teacher's hands are tied in the matter. For that reason, I should like to point out, in conclusion, certain activities and enterprises which may be carried on in the classroom in courses as they now exist, which will help attain the objectives desired. These are matters dependent upon the teacher—activities or suggestions or projects or interpretations which the teacher, alive to the international aspects of our world, may work into his courses and thereby contribute materially to the making of world-minded citizens.

A teacher is always at liberty, I think, to point out to his pupils the international aspects of the materials he is teaching—and usually the materials we teach do have these international phases. Let me take an example from the school with which I am connected; other equally good examples can be found in almost every school, but I happen to be most familiar with this one. A few weeks ago I visited a class in com-

munity life or citizenship taught by Mr. H. A. Anderson, in the University High School, at Chicago. The class was studying the unit on health, and was at work on the topic "Co-operative Action to Safeguard Health." A phase of this topic consisted of an analysis of the sanitary and medical work carried on by the Health Commission of the League of Nations. The pupils learned how this international commission, on which the United States is officially and effectively represented, has safeguarded the health of the world by preventing the spread of infectious diseases from country to country through the development of international quarantine regulations. The children in that class were getting an attitude of mind toward international problems which is exactly what we want. They were not becoming sentimental over the matter; they were comprehending both the existing need for international co-operation to safeguard health and the technique of international co-operation worked out by the health commission. By utilizing subject-matter which was most effective for his unit on health, Mr. Anderson was at the same time contributing to the aims we have set up as valuable to education for citizenship.

Another example from my own school. Recently I visited a senior class in American Political Institutions taught by one of my colleagues. The unit under study was "Enforcing Law," and a floor-talk was being given by one of the boys on the subject, "How Other Nations Help Enforce Our Laws." He was telling of the rights guaranteed to American citizens traveling abroad by treaties our government has concluded with other governments. A part of the same unit dealt with the enforcement of the international copyright law, and the laws regarding extradition of criminals. In a junior high school course in American history, floor talks were given on the topics, "Why the United States Makes Treaties with Other Nations," and "What an American Consul in France Does."

Lastly, I should like to suggest the use of collateral reading as an agency for developing international consciousness. For all our social science courses in the University High School a great deal of outside reading is done by the pupils. While most of the reading is not at all compulsory, there is some attempt to guide it in an informal way. The teacher has endless opportunity, in this type of work, to guide the pupil into acquaintance with the rapidly-accumulating literature of international relations. Pupils in the elementary or general social science courses are referred to the literature of international idealism, the expression in writing of the exalted concept of human brotherhood. Children are urged to read such materials as are found in Lyman and Hill's *Literature and Living*, Volume III, Part V, "Promoting World Fellowship." Typical of the selections included there are "The Christ of the Andes"; Charles Sumner's, "The True Grandeur of Nations," and Woodrow Wilson's, "A Society of Nations."

A second type of literature, useful in history and other courses, is that which reveals the actual inter-

dependence of modern nations. Much of the literature of this type is biographical; it deals with the careers and achievements of world-citizens whose influence has known no national boundaries. Examples of this type of material, useful at divers points in the high school, are biographies of Pasteur, Madame Curie, Caruso, Mark Twain, Shakespeare, Roald Amundsen, Wilfred Grenfell, Florence Nightingale, and a fine host of others.

A third type of literature, recommended to our children in the advanced social science courses are the books which deal directly with the relations of government to government. This is the literature revealing the technique of international co-operation—a literature which is constantly growing and becoming more usable on the high school level. In it may be listed Woodrow Wilson's state papers, entitled, *The New Democracy*, issued recently by Harper and Brothers, Elihu Root's *Addresses on International*

Subjects, Thomas Masaryk's *The Making of a State*, Viscount Grey's *Twenty-five Years*, and other volumes of like character.

Then guiding the children's outside reading is another type of activity through which teachers may contribute to the development of an understanding of the international aspects of our civilization. There are many other opportunities leading to the same end which are open to all of us, but I shall not list them here. Your own minds, if you are awake to the need, will point them out to you. And if we utilize the opportunities in a way commensurate in any degree with their potentialities we shall educate a generation to be more efficient in solving its international problems than we or our predecessors have been. We shall have a generation capable of scientific political engineering on a world-wide scale, and that generation will have been truly educated in citizenship.

The Educational Policies of Some Prominent Peace and Religious Organizations*

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ORGANIZATIONS AND METHODS

Public opinion in the United States has been subjected to many currents of influence since the World War. A certain portion of this influence has emanated from the programs of peace and religious organizations—programs which, in general, look towards a warless world. Organizations whose specific purpose is to eliminate war number over a hundred at the present time. For this discussion, however, six peace societies have been selected as having typical programs. Those are: American School Citizenship League, Association for Peace Education, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, League of Nations Non-Partisan Association, National Council for Prevention of War, and The World Peace Foundation.

Although world peace is the ultimate objective of all these societies, yet, they are not agreed upon any one method by which this state will be reached. Arbitration has been chosen by some groups as the means by which wars will be eliminated. International organization is the hope of other groups who accordingly urge membership in the League of Nations. It is believed by still others that wars are brought about because people of one nation fail to understand and appreciate people of other nations. Consequently, they seek to bring the world into closer sympathy by visits of scholars and students into other countries. Still other organizations hope to prevent war by giving publicity to its horrors and wastefulness. Each society has its own panacea for war, but in the programs of all limitation of armament has a place. Societies have been founded, however, whose

specific purpose is to oppose increased armament as well as compulsory military training.

THE CRITICISM OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Whatever program is adopted, all these groups employ educational policies or schemes by which their programs are brought before the people. Inasmuch as it has been agreed that "ignorance" and "narrow vision" were partially responsible for the World War, all the peace societies look toward the school, and more directly, toward history teaching, as "....the chief line of attack against all moods of the human mind whereby....[war is] perpetuated."²

Due to the fact that history has been charged with furnishing "....a happy hunting ground....[for] the propagandist,...." "from the earliest times, peace workers have directed their attention to the history textbook.³ As a result of this interest textbook analysis have been made in order to ascertain the specific attitudes encouraged or fostered therein.

A study of this kind was made by Miss Isabelle Kendig-Gill under the direction of the National Council for Prevention of War, who believes that "war-like moods" and prejudices against certain countries were prompted by history textbooks. The results of the analysis were printed in a pamphlet, *War and Peace in History Textbooks*.

By this investigation it was revealed that in textbooks twenty-five per cent. of the space was devoted to war, but in biographical collections of hero stories fifty per cent. of the space was given to war heroes. In the more recent textbooks, the tendency, it is said, is to shift the emphasis from the description of military campaigns, to a study of the causes and far-reaching results of war. At the same time "....an overwhelming tendency....to glorify war and military

* A paper read at the eighth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Minneapolis, July 2, 1928.

achievement" was apparent in the majority of cases.⁴ It was discovered that, after all, textbooks neither promoted friendliness nor antagonism to other nations or races.

A similar study was made by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, who also felt that history textbooks were capable of arousing ill-will between nations. The textbooks analyzed were those commonly used in the schools of Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy. Investigation was made of the content touching national and international subjects in order that sentiment which might be provocative of animosity could be omitted from future textbook writing.

The World Peace Foundation is another group who have turned their attention to the teaching of history in the school, believing that there is the "....greatest opportunity for impressing upon young minds....the true principles of international affairs." Criticism was made of history teaching which gives children the idea that "...war has contributed cardinally to the development of mankind." Indeed, this group felt that too great a space was given to the description of war in history textbooks, whereas the emphasis should be placed upon the "peaceful pursuits of life...."⁵

These textbook surveys have been made by societies who are interested in history teaching as only one of their activities. But it was this interest alone which led to the organization of the Association for Peace Education in 1923. In accord with its purpose to promote history teaching which neither glorifies war nor fosters national animosities, the Association first made a survey of history textbooks used in the primary and intermediate grades of the schools in the United States. The analysis was made by persons who had no connection with the Association. In the investigation it was revealed that over half of the books gave more than thirty per cent. of their space to war. Attention was called to the fact that in the amount of space given to war activities the greatest per cent. was given to the description of military campaigns rather than in analyzing causes and results of war. Textbooks with the highest percentage of peace content were found to be comparatively recent. The investigators concluded that school children are taught an "....amazing collection of vicious and thick unashamed propaganda."⁶

COUNTERACTING THE INFLUENCE OF MILITARISM IN SCHOOLS

In order to counteract the influence of this glorification of military history and at the same time to bring peace-time heroes to the attention of the school children of the world, the National Council for Prevention of War conducted a hero contest in 1926. School children of the entire world participated, selecting the heroes on the basis of: nobility of character, fearless and self-sacrificing devotion to a great cause, and constructive work for humanity of a permanent character. "The contest," the Council said, "was not a referendum....Each school that elected

to participate in the study project was allowed to choose and send to the Committee of Reward a list of twelve names of those the school considered most worthy to be remembered for heroic service to humanity of a permanent character."⁷ The schools also sent in an essay on each of the heroes it had chosen. As a result of the votes the names selected were: Pasteur, Lincoln, Columbus, Washington, Franklin, Wilson, Florence Nightingale, Joan of Arc, Socrates, Gutenberg, Livingston, and Stephenson. Calendars were printed on which were the portraits with the winning essay of the men selected. By printing and distributing these calendars, the Council, in an even greater degree than in the contest, is stressing the service made by heroes of peace.

In addition to these methods, organizations bring the peace message to the schools by literature sent to teachers free or at nominal cost, so anxious are they to get their cause before the public. Likewise, conferences of teachers have been addressed by representatives of the groups. Special educational conferences have been held annually for the past four years by the Association for Peace Education. "The Study and Teaching of International Relations" was the topic for the conference discussion in 1928 and was said to be regarded "....as prophetic of a change in the world's most momentous movement—the organization of the world for peace."⁸

Peace organizations have also taken steps to develop means whereby children in the schools may learn facts in regard to the aspirations and accomplishments of other nations. This was the purpose of the publication of a set of posters, *Children From Many Lands*, undertaken by the National Council for Prevention of War. Pictures and verses convey the idea that good characteristics can be found in people of all nations. A feeling of friendliness and sympathy toward those of other countries is also stimulated by a series of books entitled, *Books of Good-will*, by Miss Florence Boekel. By stories, poems, pageants, and plays, children are given ideas of understanding and respect for other peoples.

And then there are courses of study prepared by the American School Citizenship League which develop the ideal of international good-will and community co-operation for citizenship and history classes.

As its name implies, the entire objective of the American School Citizenship League is centered in the school, where it would put education to the actual test in promoting world justice. The League urges that history stress the desirability for good-will and co-operation between nations and that geography teach the child the national ideals of various nations as well as their social conditions.

Since 1921 the National Education Association has shown its approval of the work of the League by appointing committees from their organization to co-operate with the League. These co-operating committees have promoted the observance of Good-will Day on May 18th to commemorate the first Hague Conference. It was the American School

Citizenship League that first sponsored the celebration of this day as another method of enlisting teachers in the training of school children for a better understanding of other peoples and other nations. Material useful to teachers in planning Good-will Day programs has been prepared by Fannie Fern Andrews, Secretary of the League.

Knowledge of international questions is stimulated by an essay contest. The League offers prizes to students in colleges, universities, and high schools for the best essay on some international problem.

In addition to the methods used by these organizations, a plan of systematized visits between peoples of different countries is used by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace to foster an appreciation of the institutions, life, customs, and history of other countries. For this purpose tours have been conducted to various countries. In 1926 sixty college and university professors of international law visited European countries. In the same year twenty-eight Rumanian students and professors came to the United States under the auspices of the Carnegie Endowment.

Thus it is evident that peace societies seek to develop in the school child understanding and sympathy for other peoples. Many of these groups, feeling that attitudes contrary to their peace ideal were fostered by textbooks, made investigations which revealed the necessity of revision from their point of view. Essay contests have been conducted, and visits to foreign countries have been planned. Teachers have been appealed to by literature sent to them by the peace organizations, or by conferences, and by specially prepared courses of study.

The activities of peace groups are said to be proof that "there are not wanting signs that public opinion in the United States is roused from the lethargy that has marked it since the war excitement died away and is becoming ready to support...policies of international co-operation, international association and international peace...."⁹ In spite of this fact, the United States government has for nearly a decade held aloof from joining the League of Nations. That the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association was founded in 1923 shows that many Americans deplore the failure of our government to participate in this form of international organization. The specific purpose of this Association is to develop in the United States an opinion so favorable to the League of Nations and the World Court, that it will lead to our membership in them.

For this purpose a lecture bureau is maintained from which speakers can be secured, and an information bureau from which literature, moving-picture films, and study outlines have been distributed. In addition, there is published a monthly magazine, *League of Nations News*, which contains a digest of international affairs.

As it is the purpose of the Association to give instruction in the aims and organization of the League of Nations, a teachers' manual has been prepared called, *Essential Facts in Regard to the*

League. As a more potent method of inciting interest in the League, competitive examinations based on this pamphlet have been given.

To be of especial service to teachers, librarians, and leaders of young people's groups, the Association publishes *Round the World With the League of Nations*, a monthly news sheet with a circulation of eight thousand in June, 1926. For a similar service, pageants, plays, and programs have been written which depict international attitudes and ideals.

PRESENTING PEACE POLICIES TO ADULTS

In the plans for adult education the objective was focused on churches, clubs, labor groups, and the American Legion. Printed material has been sent them containing information in regard to the activities of the League of Nations.

Pressure of varying degrees of effectiveness by these groups is frequently brought to bear upon public issues. Thus have pacifists been united by their opposition to the Navy Bill, providing for the construction of fifteen light cruisers and one aircraft carrier. This Bill was introduced into Congress in February, 1928. The campaign carried on at that time by these groups is an example of how public opinion is besieged.

The campaign was said to be headed by the National Council for Prevention of War and was one in which an immense amount of literature was distributed. Declarations against the naval construction program made by such men as Senator Borah were collected and made into a pamphlet. Resolutions which expressed the disapproval of various church bodies made up other pamphlets. Information concerning the extent of our naval preparedness was the subject of another. In letters signed by Mr. Frederick J. Libby, Secretary of the Organization, the request was made that the recipients write letters to their congressmen against the Bill. As a result of this request, letters protesting against increased armament were received by congressmen. These were described by Mr. Butler, Chairman of the House Naval Affairs Committee, as the most widespread protest registered against any bill within the thirty-two years of his experience.

The peace movement in the United States has received impetus not only from many avowedly pacifist, non-sectarian societies, organized to bring about some means by which war will be eliminated, but also by the churches of all denominations. In the United States practically all the Protestant denominations have endorsed resolutions pointed against the war system and urge the adoption of measures for world peace.

One of the factors in creating a will for peace among the churches is the World Alliance for International Friendship Through the Churches. Ever since 1919 the Alliance has brought the churches of the world together to discuss their problems. At a conference at Stockholm, Sweden, in 1925, definite steps were taken to minimize international ill-will by appointing a committee to undertake the examination of history textbooks in order to see how far contempt

and hatred for other nations and races were inculcated.

The work of the World Alliance has been combined with the Church Peace Union since the close of the World War. This agency promotes the teaching of peace in the Sunday School by the preparation of what is called "Good-will Lessons."

This group, however, does not represent so large a number of persons, nor command so much influence as that said to be wielded by the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. In the attempt of this Council to direct public opinion toward world peace it has been planned to introduce regular instruction in regard to peace in Sunday School instruction. More elaborate methods have been planned in order to influence the adult congregation.

Specific attempts to create international good-will are well illustrated in a project of the Federal Council Committee on World Friendship Among Children. American children sent, in 1927, one hundred thousand dolls to Japanese children, who planned, in turn, to send Japanese dolls to American children.

For a like purpose the Committee sponsored the distribution of school bags to Mexican school children on September 16, 1928. American children made the one million, two hundred fifty thousand bags in which were put articles thought to be of interest and help in the school life of the children. This project was undertaken to give "...opportunity for interesting and educating...young people in the history of Mexico..., and for promoting a better understanding and feeling of good-will between the two countries."¹⁰

THE CRITICS OF THE PACIFIST

The attempts of all groups, both secular and religious, to bring about a warless world have not been carried on without a great deal of criticism. It is even claimed by those who oppose their efforts that peace groups are working for the destruction of American patriotism at the instigation of Russian Communists.

The ideal of the pacifist is attacked and criticized as being impractical because the only way to prevent war, says the militarist, is to be "...prepared to lick, not only one, but any combination of powers."¹¹

Among the attempts to counteract the influence of the pacifists, Mr. Fred R. Marvin is credited with "the most persistent and thoroughgoing campaign of exposure of the forces of progress in the 'Searchlight' column of the *New York Commercial*."¹² At present Mr. Marvin is conducting his campaign through the publication of *The Daily Data Sheet of the Key Men of America* sent to subscribers known as "Key Men."

The Daughters of the American Revolution raised objections to the activities of both religious and secular groups devoted to world peace activities, holding them to be under "subversive" influences. It is charged that a list of "doubtful speakers" has been assembled by certain D. A. R. members and circu-

lated throughout the state organizations, which list includes persons connected with the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, and other organizations. They charge these individuals and groups with working for the abolition of government, the destruction of organized religion, and the disestablishment of the present form of family relations.

Indeed, it is certain that the public is not only besieged on one side by the pacifist with his plans for world organization, world friendship, and world peace, but is beset on the other side by the one hundred per cent. American, the militarist, and the advocate of preparedness, who charge their opponents with socialistic proclivities of a far-reaching nature.

Regardless of the opposition against which they must work, the forces of peace are strong, and could, in the words of General Tasker Bliss, "...accomplish anything they agreed to undertake," providing they would show "...as much capacity for organization... as there is in one regiment of the United States Army...."¹³ Evidently this capacity for organization is not found in the pacifist ranks, for at present they seem unable to make much progress against the chauvinistic patriot.

However, the policies of peace and religious organizations represent a trend of present-day opinion in favor of world peace. While it is impossible to tell how effective these programs will be, yet in bringing them about, either through the education of the adult or the child, their activities must be taken into consideration in enumerating and appraising the forces endeavoring to exert an influence on the public school curriculum.

² Shillito, Edward, *Contra-Adversaries of Peace, Christian Century*, Vol. XLI (August 21, 1924), p. 1076.

³ Hearnshaw, F. J. C., "History as a Means of Propaganda," *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. CXX (August, 1923), p. 321.

⁴ Kendig-Gill, Isabelle, *War and Peace in History Text-books*, Pamphlet of the National Council for Prevention of War (Washington, D. C., n. d.), p. 4.

⁵ Ginn, Edward, *The World Peace Foundation* (Boston, 1911), pp. 4-5.

⁶ *An Analysis of the Emphasis Upon War in Our Elementary School Histories*, Pamphlet of the Association for Peace (Chicago, n. d.), p. 5.

⁷ *A Calendar of World Heroes*, Bulletin of the National Council for Prevention of War (Washington, D. C., n. d.), p. 1.

⁸ Report of the 1928 Conference, Pamphlet of the Association for Peace Education (Chicago, 1928), p. 1.

⁹ *Carnegie Endowment for International Peace Yearbook 1927*, p. 35.

¹⁰ *World Friendship Among Children*, Pamphlet of the Committee on World Friendship Among Children (New York, n. d.), p. 3.

¹¹ "A Billion for Preparedness," *Army and Navy Register*, Vol. LXXXV (May 24, 1924), p. 491.

¹² *The Christian Century*, Vol. LXIV (February 17, 1927), p. 198.

¹³ *Report of the Third Conference on the Cause and Cure of War* (Washington, D. C., 1928), p. 6.

Teaching for Peace in College

BY C. C. REGIER, NEW RIVER STATE SCHOOL, MONTGOMERY, W. VA.

Nearly all modern historians agree that history should be taught scientifically and objectively. Conclusions should be based on the documents and there should be no moralization and no theorizing. Before the War the passion for absolute accuracy of statement was so great that few courses dealing with contemporary history were offered in the universities. I attended a good mid-western university, majored in history as an undergraduate, and took my master's degree in history just before the outbreak of the War, but I never had an advanced course either in European or American history which went beyond 1876 until after 1914. The reason for this was simply that no such courses were offered. The idea seemed to be that the last possible document on a period had to be in before the historian could invade the field. When the War came nearly all American historians found themselves adrift in deep waters, unable to account for what was happening. Since then there has been a change in emphasis. Not, perhaps, that historical methods have become less scientific, but there is a much greater emphasis on the more recent decades. In fact, so great has been this change that some universities offer very few courses in history that go back farther than 1500 A. D. And there have been other changes. But has the teaching of history become more vital than it was? Does the history teacher present more *ideas*, more *points of view* along with his facts; does he project into the future and give his students visions of what may be expected if certain policies and tendencies continue? Unless he does that, the study of history is still a very formal thing.

As far as this greatest of modern problems—the elimination of war and the promotion of world peace—is concerned nobody, it seems to me, has a greater obligation and a greater opportunity than the history teacher. He must constantly deal with national movements, national aggrandizement, wars, international anarchy! Can these not be interpreted from the point of view of the human race rather than from a merely nationalistic standpoint? Of course, a teacher cannot afford to harp on one string continually and leave the impression that he is a person of only one idea. My policy is to say little about the problem of world peace until we reach the World War, and then I take several hours to discuss it frankly. The system of imperialism, militarism, alliances, and secret diplomacy which prevailed in the world before the War; the problem of war guilt; the alleged atrocities; the reasons for the entrance of the United States into the War; the unjust peace treaty; the lamentable aftermath; the retirement of this country into her isolation and her subsequent unpopularity—all offer excellent opportunities for a discussion of the whole problem. And let nobody think that the students are not interested.

Much of the difficulty of the peace movement comes from confused thinking and from the misunderstanding of certain terms. Particularly mischievous is the failure to distinguish martial force from police force. To clarify a few terms I quote from the "Fundamentals" of Edward Krehbiel, which are to be found in his book, *Nationalism, War, and Society*:

"Martial force is exercised by the interested party in his own behalf; it is competitive and seeks to impose its will, which it identifies with the right, upon its adversary by violence if necessary.

"Police force is not exercised by the interested parties to a dispute, but is the force exercised by the agents of a co-operating society; its function is, not to help one of the disputants to impose his conception of right on the other, but to see that each is protected against the other, and that both are obedient to society.

"War is the condition which exists when social groups known as nations employ martial force. Obviously, one may be opposed to war and yet sanction other kinds of force.

"Militarism is the religion of martial force.

"Pacifism repudiates martial force (and martial force only) and demands the extension of police force. It is not content to pronounce peace desirable, but proves its sincerity by laboring for conditions which, according to its lights, make for peace."

A person who reads these definitions carefully may discover for the first time in his life that he, too, is a pacifist.

The problem of war and peace is fundamentally one of attitudes. As long as we conceive of the state as the highest possible authority, as long as we believe our only safety lies in force and armaments, as long as we think that the state must necessarily be selfish, and grasp and hold all the wealth and resources it possibly can, and as long as we entertain only suspicion, contempt, and hatred for other peoples, wars will continue. Or, take that statement which is so often regarded as the knockout blow against the whole pacifist position, that as long as human nature is what it is, men will fight, implying thereby that wars must come in the future just as they have in the past. On examination, that argument will be found to be perfectly hollow. It may be that there has been little change in the germ plasm, or the anatomical structure, or the nervous system of the human body since the days of the caveman, and that, from that point of view, human nature has not changed for many thousands of years; but does anybody maintain, therefore, that we still live like cave-men? We no longer live in a state of nature, but in a highly artificial civilization. If we still lived *naturally* we would not live in houses, we would not use machines, we would not go to school, and we would not regulate our offspring. Human nature may not

have changed, but human attitudes have changed. It is not so long ago when "gentlemen" settled their personal disputes on the "field of honor" by duels. Has human nature changed since then? No, our attitude toward that method of settling disputes has changed. Why should it not change in regard to the war method of settling international disputes?

One subject toward which the people of the United States, as well as the people of the other states, will have to change their attitude in the interest of world peace is nationalism. It is a sort of hot-house plant, which has grown to enormous proportions during the last few generations under the fostering care of national journalism, militarism, and education. An excellent article on this topic appeared in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for October, 1923, and was written by Professor Hayes of Columbia University. To Professor Hayes it appears that the basic trouble with our modern world is "its anarchic system of independent and sovereign national states, the inhabitants of each of which are imbued with a peculiar national idealism and given to the uttering of curious national catchwords." Sentiments of loyalty and patriotism, he says, are ennobling, but unfortunately patriotism has become confused with nationalism. The chief aim of state-directed education is to inculcate the children with patriotism. The beginners are taught to salute the flag and to sing national anthems. Later in their geography class they are taught that a country should have plenty of natural resources and natural frontiers; in civics they learn that theirs is the best government in the world; in literature, that theirs is the most ethical race; in history, that their country has always been in the right. "Nationalism," Hayes goes on to say, "is partly love of country, but chiefly something else. Nationalism is a proud and boastful habit of mind about one's own nation, accompanied by a supercilious or hostile attitude toward other nations; it admits that individual citizens of one's country may do wrong, but it insists that one's nation is always right. Nationalism is either ignorant and prejudiced or inhuman and jaundiced; in both cases, it is a form of mania, a kind of extended and exaggerated egotism and it has easily recognizable symptoms of selfishness and jingoism. Nationalism is artificial and it is far from ennobling; in a word, it is patriotic snobbery." True patriotism involves humanity, is humble, and tries to serve and promote human happiness.

There is no need for the fatalism which some people attach to this spirit of nationalism as something fixed and unchangeable. As soon as the public-opinion-forming people of any country make up their minds to change the public's attitude toward nationalism, they can do so. In the meantime it is well to remember, however, that at present it prevails in nearly every civilized country of the world. It has been said that anybody who will take the trouble to tramp through the Balkan states, go to the little out-of-the-way schools and talk to the teachers and look into their textbooks, especially the history books, will soon discover why those little countries are always

ready to fly at each other's throats. As long as this spirit of nationalism is rampant the stage is always set—psychologically—for wars. All that is necessary is for a certain group of people—say, some business corporations who are trying to exploit some so-called "backward country"—to publish some inflammatory articles in the nationalistic press, claiming that the "flag" has been insulted and the "national honor" violated, and we are all ready to shoulder arms and teach Mexico—or some other country—a lesson.

Some years ago the late Professor Albion W. Small of the University of Chicago playfully introduced Professor Ross of Wisconsin to the American Sociological Association as the "converted pagan." On opening his talk Ross admitted that there had been a time when he did not see much in Christianity. But after a quarter of a century spent in the study of social problems he had come to the conclusion that our social program should be the elimination of friction and the promotion of co-operation. And never in his life, he said, had he been so much surprised as when it dawned upon him that the elimination of friction and the promotion of co-operation was essentially the program which Jesus had pursued nearly two thousand years ago. The application of this principle to the problem of peace is apparent.

It has been said that large-group consciousness and Christianity are one and the same thing. Let us elaborate this a little. It is possible even in the smallest social group—the family—to be selfish. But let us suppose that a certain father is sincerely interested in the welfare of every member of his little group. That same father may show a lack of the Christian spirit, or have the small-group consciousness, when it comes to the larger community. He may insist that the streets in his part of the city be paved, and that the schools in his district be improved, disregarding the rest of the community. That same principle can be applied to any group. The time was when men resigned high offices in our Federal government in order to assume offices in their respective states. They regarded it a higher honor and a greater duty to serve their commonwealths than to serve the whole Union. That time is past, but there are still millions of Americans who hesitate at the next logical step—that of putting humanity above America. To them the United States is big enough. Their group consciousness is not large enough to embrace the whole human race.

Right along with this idea runs the historical fact that the tendency in human society has been to move from the small-group organization to the large-group organization. Starting from the family we pass through the clan, the tribe, the city-state, to the national-state. At each consolidation, no doubt, innumerable wars were eliminated.

Why should the process stop there? Why should there be sixty or seventy independent and sovereign national states left to quarrel and fight among themselves? Is not that international anarchy? Everywhere else we have government and police control.

Why not here? Why should there not be an international government—no matter what its name may be? A share of their independence and sovereignty these national states would have to surrender, of course, but it would be in the interest of the larger good; just as the thirteen original American colonies did when they founded the Federal Union. No American now contends that it would have been better if the states had all remained independent of each other. Danger and sacrifice this might involve, but would it not—in the long run—be the lesser evil?

We Americans are in danger of forgetting that the present is a mere point in the course of history. Today we may sit on the top of the earth and drink, so to speak, the cream of all the goods of the world; but what of tomorrow? Tomorrow we will need friends. Already we are being told that the United States is rapidly drifting into the position which Germany held before the war—strong and aggressive, and without friends. We continually confuse bigness with greatness. We judge everything by the "infernal pig-iron theory of progress." We are not treating others as we want them to treat us, and we have not yet learned that other people may have different conceptions as to what constitutes happiness from ours.

The strong are not immune from danger. In some ways they are more exposed than the weak, especially if they have not that one redeeming quality of humility; and we do not have it. We must learn to get

along with other peoples, and we do well if we remember that sooner or later the unsocial are eliminated. We constitute only 6 or 7 per cent. of the human race, and we cannot afford to play the part of an international bully.

It may be objected that this is not history, and has therefore no place in the history classroom. My reply is that it may not be history in the orthodox and formal sense, but that it contains valuable points of view for the history student. Why should not a student get a few ideas in college? And what if some of them come from the history department? It goes without saying that nearly any teacher who has a social conscience will find occasions to deal with the problem of peace, but it seems to me the history teacher is more directly confronted with it than any other.

It is my custom to give to my students, especially in freshman and sophomore classes, a list of comprehensive review propositions about a week before the final examination. In those classes in which we have dealt with the most recent period I usually have one which reads about like this: "How can we prevent wars in the future?" I expect them to know that the causes which lead to wars must be abolished, that international processes of justice must be established, that we must develop an international mind, and that we can contribute our mite by joining and supporting movements and organizations which stand for international peace and good-will.

Our Relations with Our World Neighbors, A Study of American Foreign Policy

A Lesson Plan in the Problems of Democracy Course

BY M. E. CLARK, CECILTON, MD.

In recent years much has been said about the wisdom of adopting a course in problems of democracy in the last year of the high school, and many arguments have been put forth regarding the content of such a course. The course is established already in many schools, and is being established in others. Teachers are being asked to select topics, to organize these topics and to teach them. The internationalization of the world today and our part in it are of the utmost importance. As one part of a nine months' course in problems, I submit the following.

We had come to the last of our April topic and were discussing the new one for May-June. The class was hazy in its mind as to what it wanted. Spring was with us, crocus and daffodil appearing in the school yard, little green shoots on the shrubs, maples showing red—it's against human nature to think seriously in such circumstances, especially human *child* nature, and these adolescents of mine, in spite of their assumed sophistication, are mere children in some respects. A sudden whir, a buzz, a swoop as of a great bird in the field a few rods away, plainly visible from our first floor windows! A rush

to the windows, pupil and teacher alike! An airplane had alighted in a near-by field and before we knew it, the whole school, you may say, was in the field, and those who had sufficient funds with them were making a test of the thrill that one is supposed to get from an airplane ride. When they came back, for the moment all thought of problems of democracy had left them. Yet they were full of their experience, and all wanted to talk at once. Now's my chance! the thought came like a flash, for all the time I had been intending to teach the international topic next. So I began to ask questions about airplane travel in general, its future possibilities, and its significance for world communication. By questions, suggestions, discussion, we led up to the present interdependence of modern nations, brought about by the marvelous age of invention in which we are living, an age which coincides rather closely with the life of the United States as a nation, and explains our changing policy. We also brought out the comparative smallness of the world today, the ease of communication, similarity of food, dress, amusement, etc., in the culture area to which we belong, and even the

spread of our culture to other places. The discussion inevitably led to the League of Nations, why we had not joined, what the objections were, especially to Article X, what part politics had in keeping us out of the League, our future course, etc. The question arose, "Why not study this whole policy of isolation, Monroe Doctrine, etc., for our next topic?" The class had the necessary interest right there, so we decided to take it, just as I had planned to do, anyway. Now this was for May-June; but for this year, if I were planning a course, September would be a fine month to begin, because of the Byrd South Pole expedition starting in that month, and suggesting the scope of our world-wide interests.

The class wanted to get to work at once, so we had the Secretary write on the board a few topics for thought, with instructions to write out some questions that might occur to each student. The second day we considered the questions prepared by the class, and passed out mimeographed copies of the following introductory questions which sum up the discussion of the first day, and put it into better shape.

INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS

Our narrowing horizon:

1. What recent events have seemed to make the world smaller? Explain. (Refer to Lindberg's "We" and Byrd's "Skyward," also to Miss Earhart's book, to be published by Putnam in the autumn.)
2. If flying proves successful for commercial and passenger uses, will that limit any further the size of the world? Why?
3. How large is the world? (A good many will not know and will be hazy about routes of trade. Use world maps and globe. Have someone use the black-board map.)
4. What are the principal nations? Locate them and their chief cities.
5. How do their governments differ? In what respects are they similar, or have the same principles? Why do you say so?
6. As the world grows smaller, what form of government is being more and more accepted? Are we approaching a world government? A world community of ideas?
7. Explain what is meant by international law. Why incomplete and frequently ineffectual? What is meant by the international mind? Explain clearly.
8. Summarize inventions or discoveries that have tended to give us an international mind, especially inasmuch as they have improved transportation and communication over our cultural area? (They will readily mention railroad, steamship, telegraph, telephone, gramophone, cinema, printing press, radio, automobile, airship, etc.)
9. Why then can we not avoid international contact today? How does our commerce rank today? In what ways have we contacts with the nations of the world? (It would be worth while at this point to take some time to locate our principal productive and trade centers, as well as the nations with whom we do business, giving a better grasp of its world-wide significance. Tables of statistics are given in most of the problems texts, World Almanac, or, if that is not available, in Current Events Yearbook, and our state and city almanacs. A good economic geography will help. I had them make graphs showing export and import trade and chief nations involved.)
10. Contrast these conditions that we have noted with conditions in the time of George Washington. Show the map of the U. S. then and today; Great Britain

then and today; South America, South Seas, Africa, etc. This makes clear the fact of our close relations around us, as contrasted with an earlier period.

All the above was preliminary. Once the topic was fully launched, the class was given mimeographed sheets of the outline of subject-matter to be covered, together with the book-list, directions as to where and how books were to be found, general notebook requirements, directions as to book review, problem paper, etc.

The teacher should have at hand such tools as she may be able to assemble, maps, charts, graphs, black-board map, pictures, sources, relics, etc., and always a few extra pencils and papers for the careless pupils.

The outline or syllabus was as follows:

OUR RELATIONS WITH OUR WORLD NEIGHBORS, A STUDY OF AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY

- I. Our traditional policy of isolation.
 1. Motives of early settlers and independence of their early life under primitive conditions in America.
 2. Colonial period filled with difficulties caused by European conditions.
 - a. Illustrations: Navigations Acts; French and Indian Wars.
 3. Revolutionary War to free America from European domination.
 4. Wealth and resources of new country tend to foster policy of isolation.
- II. Early isolation under Washington.
 1. Trouble caused by Old World quarrels—France claims that the U. S. owes her an alliance.
 2. The Neutrality Proclamation.
 3. Farewell Address, warning against permanent alliances.
 4. Influence of Washington even today, with conditions entirely different.
- III. Jefferson's attitude.
 1. Inaugural address—"entangling alliances with none."
 2. Reduction of army and navy—"one set of plunderers."
- IV. War of 1812.
 1. Freedom of the seas.
 - a. The "Mistress of the Seas" and impressment.
 2. European conditions again a cause of trouble.
 3. Barbary Wars.
 4. Why we could not steer clear of Europe.
- V. The Monroe Doctrine.
 1. Holy Alliance, aims and attitude.
 - a. South American colonies after the Napoleonic Wars.
 2. England's attitude—Canning.
 3. Principal points of the Monroe Doctrine.
 4. Various interpretations and enlargements by Pres. Polk, Sec. Blaine, Sec. Olney, Pres. Roosevelt.
 5. Pres. Wilson's interpretation, Mobile Speech, October, 1913.
 6. Popular interpretations.
 7. Monroe Doctrine challenged.
 - a. French in Mexico during the Civil War.
 - b. Venezuela trouble.
 - c. Roosevelt and the Monroe Doctrine.
 - x. Santo Domingo and the Canal Zone.
- VI. America as a World Power.
 1. Boxer Rebellion, 1898.
 2. Annexation of Hawaii, 1898.
 3. Spanish-American War; acquisition of Philippines, etc.
 4. Roosevelt and Russo-Japanese War.

5. International trade relations.
 - a. Panama Canal.
6. Central America.
- VII. Entrance into World War.
 1. Trade conditions compared to those of a century ago.
 2. Real interests involved.
 3. Neutrality changes to alliance.
- VIII. Our attitude toward the League of Nations.
 1. Work of Woodrow Wilson.
 2. Our policy of isolation continued.
 3. Why we cannot remain isolated today.
 4. Should we join the League?
- IX. The Monroe Doctrine today.
 1. Our attitude toward South America.
 - a. Opposition in South America.
 2. Our attitude toward Central America.
 - a. Control of the Caribbean—an "American Lake."
 3. Nicaraguan question.
 4. West Indies.
 5. Monroe Doctrine and Pan-American Union.
 6. Conference of 1928.
 7. Attitude of European nations and Japan toward the Monroe Doctrine.
 8. A sensible interpretation. What does it mean to you?
- X. Should the Monroe Doctrine dominate our foreign policy?
 1. Arguments for and against.
 2. Questions arising after the World War.
 3. Your opinion of the following statement: "We must be allowed to maintain the *Pax Americana* even if Latin-America objects."
- XI. Administration of our foreign affairs.
 1. State department.
 - a. Sec. of State and duties.
 - b. Consular service and duties.
 - c. Diplomatic corps and duties.
 - d. Need of training in diplomacy.
- XII. War, the greatest problem of diplomatic effort.
 1. Losses in life, wealth, and property, in new production, in future debt.
 2. Gains in winning a principle, in invention, in surgery and medicine, in lands, concessions, etc.
 3. Counting losses and gains, losses far out-weighting.
- XIII. The League of Nations as a solution of international difficulties.
 1. Latest and most complete attempt at world organization.
 2. Organization of the League.
 3. Member states.
 4. Accomplishments.
- XIV. Should the United States join the League of Nations?
 1. Informal debate in the classroom.

(Other allied topics, such as international health, problems of immigration, Red Cross, and other organizations promoting internationalization are taken up under other headings; this is a plan for one month, or perhaps six weeks, a part only of the year's work.)

Reference list: Books will be found upon the open shelves in the classroom. They may be taken out for home work upon application at the desk, unless only one copy of a book is supplied:

Shepherd, Historical Atlas.
 Goode, School Atlas: Physical, Political, and Economic.
 Compton, Pictured Encyclopedia.
 New International Encyclopedia.
 Latané, America as a World Power.
 Latané, From Isolation to Leadership.
 Shepherd, Latin-America.
 García-Calderon, Latin-America (for South American viewpoint).
 Beard, American Government and Politics.
 Magruder, American Government in 1925.
 Muzzey, American History.
 Washington's Farewell Address.

Guittau, Government and Politics in the U. S.
 Livermore, The League of Nations.
 Murray, Problems of Foreign Policy.
 Tufts, Real Business of Living.
 Rhodes, McKinley and Roosevelt Administrations.
 Adams, History of the Foreign Policy of the U. S.
 Woodburn and Moran, The Citizen and the Republic.
 Old South Leaflets, The Monroe Doctrine.
 MacDonald, Documentary Source Book.
 Hart, American History Told by Contemporaries.

Basic texts:

Hughes, Problems of Democracy.
 Morehouse and Graham, American Problems.
 Both books will be used in the classroom. Be sure that you have one of them.

Other texts used as reference:

Greenan and Meredith, Problems in American Democracy.
 Fairchild, Elements of Social Science.
 Williamson, Problems.
 Burch and Patterson, Problems.
 Levis, Citizenship.
 Hughes, Textbook.

Current newspapers and magazines:

New York Times.
 State and County papers (or city).
 Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature.
 Review of Reviews.
 Current History.
 St. Nicholas.
 Political Science Quarterly.
 National Geographic Magazine.
 Pamphlets from "International Conciliation."
 Pamphlets from League of Nations Non-Partisan Association.
 International Yearbook.
 World Almanac.
 Who's Who in America.
 World News.
 Current Events Loose Leaf Topics.
 Other books, magazines, and papers bearing on the course will be welcome. Contribute what you can.

Suggestive questions:

1. Read your syllabus carefully, tracing the steps in the development of our foreign policy. Compare with the American history you had last year.
2. What is meant by arbitration? Have we been willing to permit the arbitration of international disputes? What are the advantages of arbitration?
3. Why has our policy of isolation been changed without our volition?
4. Be sure that you understand how treaties are made. See the constitution and material in Magruder and in Beard.
5. List our aims in the World War. Justify them to yourself. If you cannot, why?
6. Why was the League Covenant rejected in the U. S. Senate? (See Muzzey, or other U. S. history text.)
7. Look up conduct of foreign affairs in Beard.
8. Is the United States a peace-loving nation? Prove your point. (See Beard, Muzzey, Latané.)
9. Define imperialism. Is our attitude toward Latin-America an imperialistic one? (See García-Calderon for L. A. point of view.)
10. Has the Monroe Doctrine been maintained by mere good fortune, as Latané seems to imply? Explain.

The above questions are to be prepared for class discussion. Your part in discussion will count toward your term grade.

Notebook work:

Maps, charts, and graphs will be assigned from day to day. Requirement I, map of the world, showing

chief trade routes, industrial centers, etc.; on the opposite page same map, showing agricultural areas. Outline maps may be used, available at desk (McKinley Pub. Co.).

List of all reading, with amount completed, its bearing on topic (briefly), title, author, publisher, and date. Keep occasional test papers in notebook (for reference).

Daily notes on class discussion.

Review of one book for the problem (consult instructor before paper is written).

Final problem paper (outline must be approved before paper is written).

Advice: "If a high school senior must do all his studying in the classroom in order to get anything accomplished, there is little to hope from him when he is thrown on his own resources after he gets his diploma."—*Hughes*.

After the sheets were given out, questions asked and answered, a committee was selected for the discussion during the later periods. The chairman of this committee led during the first discussion day, and other members on subsequent days, i. e., conducted the meeting. The instructor through individual and group consultations guided the course of the discussions. There was time during the school day in study periods to consult with students.

The first real lesson on the problem was a sort of résumé given by the instructor of the history of the problem to relate it to previous study of United States history. The following day a brief test was given to see if the pupils had a working knowledge of the topic. They had not, so we had another day of review and discussion. The next period, they were put to work in the classroom, maps, charts and globe all there, books within reach. During the period, I walked from table to table, helping. This continued for several days, during which we cleared up many difficulties. Then some members were ready for discussion, others for "floor talks." After awhile we

worked up to the debate, which is the big thing in a month's work. The class was comparatively small, so everybody had a chance to talk in some way before the class. At intervals short tests were given to see how the pupils were progressing, and what they needed to re-learn. They were urged not to despise facts; indeed, they were led to see that facts are necessary for accurate thought. An assignment in the text, and a definite minimum had to be required of all, because so many students would do very little without such definite requirement, and unless they knew that their work would be called for by the instructor.

At the end of the problem, a day was set aside for general discussion (the class should number not more than twenty-five or thirty); and a written summary of the problem by each pupil was required. This paper, with a brief true-false or completion test closed the work of the month. Some of the papers were surprising, showing as they did the mastery of books used, comparison of authorities, suggestions gained from out of school discussion and from the students' own thought. The work had been done carefully, we thought, so that we came close to our aim of teaching better citizenship through the use of a present-day problem showing the world relationship of the nations today, the interdependence of nations and the ideal of the future that men shall be internationally minded, citizens of the world rather than of one nation, believing in the brotherhood of man and the peace of the world rather than in the hatred and strife of the past. Perhaps we are too optimistic; but, at any rate, the working out of this particular topic left us in a hopeful frame of mind, and we believe that it is worth trying, and that such study is a step, at any rate, toward the desired results.

World Relations as a Subject in the Curriculum

BY MARY DEVER, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Dr. Boyd H. Bode, in his "Modern Educational Theories," defines democracy as "a social organization that aims to promote co-operation among its members and with other groups on the basis of mutual recognition of interests."

He reminds us that to the founders of the Republic it meant "merely political democracy," "no peasants, no serfs." But times change. What was progress yesterday is stagnation today. Democracy then must set new goals with every upward sweep of human aspiration if it is to retain its color of liberty. Hardened into dogma it binds. Released from tradition it liberates. To us today it means economic freedom, no undue interference with the individual, no special privilege. Tomorrow it must have a richer content. It must mean not only co-operation of individuals in our own country, but appreciation of and co-operation with individuals of other groups, and of our country with other countries.

Training children to an understanding and appreciation of this interpretation of democracy is one part of the work of the public schools, and whatever the American public schools contribute to the solution of international problems will be an expression of democracy as we see it. It must be such because of our traditional commitment to democratic ideals.

Appreciation and co-operation are unconsciously shown in the games of children and seem to belong to childhood. We adults have to learn them all over again. There is like-mindedness in the desire to play, and teamwork in planning and executing. Carried a step further this appreciation and co-operation are no longer limited to individuals, but are established among groups of individuals.

Probably no one would question the opinion that the next great movement in the growth of democracy is the bringing about of a better understanding among national groups. There are no frontiers for

art and science. Anyone would be laughed at today who attempted to hide the results of exploration. Yet this was a custom that was thought to be advantageous in the past. Why? Because of lack of faith in the benefits of co-operation. Today such benefits have been proven. Without international understanding aviation on any extended scale would be impossible.

Progress toward the understanding of nations by each other will depend on the attitudes children develop in school and elsewhere.

The purpose of the school in teaching world relations should be to impart a knowledge of other nations without creating prejudice on the one hand or sentiment on the other; to stimulate a desire for fair play by studying both sides; to open up debatable questions for future consideration.

While knowledge is being acquired, feeling is developed into attitudes that are the controlling force in the life of the individual. How basic, how fundamental, is emotion, is shown in the report of an American explorer, Dr. Matthew Stirling, of his recent visit to the pygmies in the interior of New Guinea. He found these small, brown people living in the stone age, but emotionally as highly developed as the most civilized white man. He remained with them three months, and they shed tears at his departure, but they never asked him where he was going or whether he would ever return. Feeling or attitude first—thinking later, and they had not yet reached the thinking level.

A man who would not express an opinion as to what is wrong with an automobile without first examining it, may be loud in his demand for war on another country. Why? Because his feelings are involved.

These are the reasons why in the opinion of the writer of this paper, the subject of international relations should be given the importance of a separate presentation in every school, probably in the last half year of the group of social studies dealing with American history. The objection may be raised that the subject is beyond the range of a child's thought. But political stress and strain arise out of concrete situations of very great interest. Human beings as individuals much like ourselves are at the beginning of every international problem. The pirates of the Mediterranean unwittingly caused the French occupation of Northern Africa. English influence in Egypt is traced to the collection of British loans in Cairo. And the feeling of a Chinaman toward an Englishman may be—unknown to himself—colored by the Opium War of ninety years ago. The Amir of Afghanistan visits Western Europe. We know his explanation of why he went—trade, advantageous contracts for public improvements and so on—but why did the British and Russian Governments spend such great sums entertaining him—the ruler of a small and backward country, himself a man of meager attainment? These are all situations where the human

element is predominant. They furnish a background of reality to the story of the contacts of nations with each other.

If courses of this kind are to be given, material and method should be treated scientifically by experts. The two objectionable attitudes previously mentioned, would then be avoided—that of prejudice and that of sentiment. The subject-matter would then be unquestioned fact selected in accordance with the most modern scientific practice. Material of this kind lends itself to the most advanced social treatment while developing an attitude of open-mindedness on the part of the student.

There is grave danger in neglecting instruction in this subject. We cannot let children grow up in ignorance of world conditions and then expect them to exercise wisdom in dealing with world questions. The person who has not been taught a right attitude toward foreign countries will form a wrong one of his own. A man may be ignorant of art. His ignorance may not actively harm himself or others. But ignorance of international contacts and the causes and results of international disputes leads to world disasters. There is no man, no matter how uninformed, who does not feel strongly on these subjects; and his feelings, let it be remembered, are a part of the public opinion which rules us all.

It was my privilege last spring to attend the convention marking the centennial of the American Peace Society, in Cleveland. We in the audience, which was not large, considering the importance of the occasion, listened while leaders in the movement addressed their hearers who were already devoted to the cause. Young people were conspicuously absent, and there was no apparent effort to win recruits to the movement. Speakers on the platform were telling us what we already believed, and persuading us to an adherence that was already ours. The same amount of effort expended on the young would have brought more in the way of results.

We adults will not see international understanding an assured thing, because treaties and laws cannot bring it about. But by giving children an insight into causes of war and conditions that make for peace, we can enable them to carry on. And out of the international contacts of the present the peace or war of the future is at this moment growing.

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An Experiment in Meeting Individual Differences in the Social Science Classes in Athens Senior High School¹

BY EDWARD S. DOWELL, HEAD, DEPT. OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, ATHENS (OHIO) HIGH SCHOOL, SUPERVISOR IN TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

I. INTRODUCTION

It is quite generally agreed that pupils are not equal in mental capacity. Ever since Thorndike wrote his classic on "Individuality," the voluminous literature on the subject attests to the importance of this fact. Today, it is recognized that classroom instruction should be individualized, i. e., it should be adapted to the need and capacity of the different pupils. With this end in view, the Social Science Department in Athens Senior High School is now working on an experiment whereby the individual differences of the pupils in the various classes can be satisfactorily met. This paper seeks to explain this experiment in brief compass.

II. THE PROBLEM

Roughly speaking, the pupils in the Social Science classes can be arranged in three groupings. The largest group is composed of those who have average ability and can do what might be termed an average assignment. Another group, much smaller, is capable of doing much more and better work. The last group is composed of those of rather inferior ability, who, because of mental sluggishness, laziness, or other handicaps, are scarcely able to secure a passing grade. This group, too, is not large. Now, according to the old method of classroom procedure, these groups would be expected to do the same type and amount of work. The fallacy of such a method is obvious, since it completely fails to take into account the varying abilities of the different pupils.

Discarding this plan, the big problem then, is to so organize the subject-matter that pupils will be expected to do a grade of work in proportion to their ability. The plan outlined below seeks to answer this problem.

III. THE PLAN

At the beginning of the school year, each pupil is assigned to work in a certain group. This is done by the instructor after a conference with each pupil. The basis upon which the assignment is made is the quality of work previously done in Social Science. The pupil can work in one of three groups. If he works in the C Group, all that he is required to do is to master the regular classroom work. This involves working out each day's problems, handing the correct answers in to the instructor before they are discussed in class, volunteering liberally and contributing to the class discussion of these problems and using the study period purposefully. If this is well done, the highest grade that can be secured is a C, though, of course, it can fall to a D or E, depending on the nature of the work done. Work in the next highest group, the B Group, requires that the regular classroom work shall be well done, and, in addition, twenty special prob-

lems must be answered intelligently and handed in to the instructor. These problems are of such a sort that they aim to test the judgment and thinking ability of the pupil. No one in this group can rate above a B. In the highest, or A Group, the student must do forty pages of outside reading in addition to the requirements demanded of those working in the B Group. This must be on topics assigned by the instructor. References are also given to aid the pupils in finding material on these topics. A synopsis of the reading done is handed in to the instructor for checking up purposes. In case pupils in the A Group give special reports or bring helpful clippings to class, these are allowed to count as outside reading, the number of pages allowed each to be determined by the instructor.

Pupils in the B Group can substitute special reports, clippings, etc., for some of the special monthly problems. The instructor determines the nature of this substitution.

Pupils work in the group to which they are assigned for one month. At the end of that time, they can change their classification up or down, depending, of course, upon the work done. No student is allowed to move forward too rapidly. Unless the case is exceptional, no pupil is permitted to advance from the C to the A Group in one month. Advancement can be made during the month, but in this case, it must be made during the first two weeks. To illustrate: If a pupil, assigned to Group C, does this work well during the first two weeks, he can, if he so desires, advance and work in Group B during the last two weeks of the month. The work, therefore, is flexible in that it allows advancement or demotion, depending upon the ability of the student and his willingness to work. The pupil determines the level upon which he will work, subject, of course, to his capacity to work.

This plan is thoroughly explained to the pupils at the outset. They are encouraged to ask questions on matters that are not clear. It is vital to the whole plan that the students have a clear understanding of what is to be done.

IV. THE PLAN IN ACTION

After the pupil gets his classification, he is ready for the work of the month. If he is in the C Group, he simply does the regular classroom work. There is nothing in connection with this activity that needs further comment.

If he is working in the B or A Group, he secures from the instructor a list of the special problems. Pupils are encouraged to get these during the first week and not let them go until the last week. Most of the pupils in this group, since they are above the average in ability, get their problems early and thus

have at least three weeks in which to work on them. The pupil can work on these problems during the regular study period, providing he has his regular assignment completed. Otherwise, he must do the work outside the classroom. The problems are answered on a special sheet furnished by the instructor.

This report must be made out in ink

SPECIAL PROBLEM SHEET

Name of pupil.....

Date

I

These sheets are handed in to the instructor for correction three days before the end of the school month.

Those students who rank in Group A receive, in addition to the special problem sheets, a list of topics for outside reading with references. As in the case of the special problems, the pupils are urged to do this work throughout the month and not let it pile up, so that a considerable amount of time will be needed at the end of the month to get it done. It is permissible to do this work during the study period after the regular assignment is mastered. Most of this work is done at home, and students are permitted to take the reference books out for this purpose by signing up for the books with the instructor. When the reading is completed, a synopsis is handed in at the same time that the special problems are turned in. Special sheets for this purpose are furnished the students.

This report must be made out in ink

Month

Name of pupil.....

Book

Pages

Subject

Synopsis

A further word should be said in regard to the use of special reports and also clippings, editorials, and pictures.

Special reports are assigned in connection with most of the daily lessons and cover material that is important to the lesson, but not accessible to the class as a whole. Only those pupils who work in the A or B Groups are allowed to do this work. In the case

of the former, a special report counts on the outside reading. Such a report gives the pupil a credit of not less than two pages on his monthly outside reading record and, in no case, will he receive credit for more than eight pages. The instructor, in consultation with the student, determines what each report is worth. With the students in the B Group, a special report is considered at least the equivalent of answering two problems of the twenty special problems assigned for the month, and, in no case, can a special report be substituted for more than five problems. As in the previous case, the instructor, in conference with the pupil, determines the number of problems for which the report is a substitute.

Every special report must be prepared on a special blank, with which the student is provided, and must be handed in to the instructor on the same day that the report is given in class. Below is the type of blank used:

This report must be made out in ink

SPECIAL REPORT RECORD

Name of pupil.....

Date of report.....

Subject for report.....

Reference
(Book or pages)

Important things in report.....

.....
.....

Pupils are encouraged to hand in clippings, editorials, and pictures connected with the day's lesson, wherever this is possible. Only students in the A or B Groups receive credit for this, although those working in the C Group can hand in such material if

John Jones

EDITORIAL

"Christian Science Monitor"

April 20, 1927

Editorial

pasted

here

Statement of value of editorial given here

they so desire. No clipping, etc., is acceptable unless it has merit. To receive credit, they must be cut out and pasted on a blank sheet of paper. The name of the person handing in the material must be written clearly in the upper right hand corner of the blank paper. The type of material, the place where it was obtained and the date, if possible, when it was printed, are to be given also. Below the material, there must be an estimate of its value.

Any editorial, clipping or picture is considered the equivalent of not more than eight pages of outside reading and may be substituted by those working in the B Group for not more than four special problems. The rating of these items is done by the instructor.

V. CONCLUSION

While this plan has been in operation only a short time, it has proved satisfactory. The work of the students in the A or B Groups has, on the whole,

been excellent. The special problems have been carefully worked out and the outside reading intelligently read. The special reports, clippings, editorials, etc., have aroused keen interest and the work done in this field has been of a high order. This arrangement has kept every student busy up to his capacity. The flexibility of the plan has stimulated many to seek to improve their classification and, hence, their grade. In a word, it has stimulated greater interest in the work and better scholarship has resulted.

This program will undoubtedly have to be revised as time and experience demonstrate weaknesses. No one would advocate this plan as a cure-all. It does not meet perfectly the need for instruction based upon individual differences, but it is a step in the right direction.

¹ I am indebted to one of my former practice teachers in Social Science, Miss Mary Fern Koons, for the assembling of some of this material.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Dina Portway Dobson, *The Teaching of Pre-History in Schools* (Historical Association Leaflet, No. 74: London, G. Bell & Sons, 1928), makes the following claims for teaching pre-historical material: (1) children like it; (2) everything taught can be illustrated with proof; (3) pre-history deals with fundamental necessities of life which children can understand; (4) pre-historical materials may be used to show how civilization arose and developed in a similar way in all parts of the world; (5) such materials provide a proper background for the study of history; (6) children may develop similar forms of field work to those studied.

The author suggests that eight lessons—more if time is available—be devoted to pre-history. The subject should be considered from two sides, the physical and the cultural, and should be divided according to the Paleolithic, Neolithic, and Bronze and Iron ages. Concrete visual materials are suggested, and several illustrations are included. Although no statement is given, the materials imply that pre-history is to be studied at the elementary school level. Bibliographies for teachers and children are appended.

Teachers will welcome this informing bulletin. It contains many concrete suggestions, most of which can be used in American schools. Teachers in all states which do not have anti-evolution laws and similar restrictions, intended to legalize ignorance and superstition, will profit through the reading of these materials, presented in simple form. The ever-increasing body of knowledge on pre-literate history must some day filter down into the history courses in public schools.

What are the usual secondary school pupils' attitudes toward his country and other countries? To what extent are there attitudes modified, changed, or directed as a result of the study of history? Bessie Louise Pierce, in the October 15th issue of *The Survey*, contributes some results from an investigation of more than 1,100 junior and senior high school pupils in a far-eastern state and a middle western state. Pupils contributed answers to the following questions: "What is patriotism? How can you show your loyalty toward your country? Have you, through your study of history, gained a liking or a dislike for any country?"

The answers to the first two questions were tabulated together, since patriotism and loyalty were regarded as

synonymous concepts by the pupils. With defense of country represented as 100 per cent., the other answers are distributed as follows: obedience to law, 79 per cent.; voting, 12 per cent.; honoring officials, 6 per cent.; paying taxes, 4 per cent. Selection of the elements of patriotism did not vary according to sex. The majority subscribed to the belief that "patriotism is the manner in which you support your country by abiding with its laws and always being ready to die loyally for your country."

In the answers to the third question, the following data were found: (1) only five of the 1,100 pupils pointed out that history should teach that "there is good in every nation," and that, as a result of the study of history, pupils should be aided "to see both sides of national and international questions"; (2) most answers revealed a certain feeling of admiration or hostility toward different countries; (3) pupils have not absorbed the feeling of hostility toward Great Britain to the extent that was true in earlier times; (4) France was the most popular country, while Austria received no favorable comments; (5) few pupils held friendly attitudes toward Mexico, China, Japan, Russia, and Turkey; (6) only four of the 1,100 pupils felt that the United States had engaged in enterprises of which all could not be proud; (7) nearly all pupils professed love for their own country, with peaceful and non-militaristic tendencies mentioned most frequently.

After mentioning results of similar studies by Robert Frederick and S. M. Keeny, the writer concludes that pacificism and internationalism have gained no hold on pupils, and that teachers and textbook writers "still accept the traditional and allow their pupils to be bound by old patterns of thought and behavior, leading young minds neither to sober reflection as to the origins of current attitudes nor to analysis of their real meaning."

Orlando W. Stephenson, in the November issue of *Journal of Educational Research*, presents the results of a co-operative study on "The Special Vocabulary of Civics." The study was based on an analysis of ten textbooks in civics; seven of the textbooks are intended for use at the senior high school level, and the other three at the junior high school level. Several experienced teachers and forty seniors and graduate students co-operated in making the study. The method included: (1) the preparation of a working list of words from the indices of all ten books;

(2) the preparation of a second list which included the words in the first list plus additions found by four different persons who read each text; (3) the preparation of a frequency list based on the second list by twenty persons, each of whom was assigned one-half of a book for tabulation; (4) the sum of the twenty frequency lists represents the number of times each word or expression appeared in the ten texts; (5) the determination of the probable error in the count through the random selection of twenty words or expression, and then counting the frequency of appearance in all books used.

A summary of the list, according to a tabulation made by the reviewer, may be presented as follows:

Frequency	No. of words or expressions
2,000-	5
1,500-2,000	6
1,000-1,500	16
500-1,000	38
300- 500	43
200- 300	56
100- 200	121
50- 100	149
Less than 50	294

The entire list is published. Teachers and curriculum-makers are indebted to the writer and his assistants for the results of the study, although the results would have been more usable if the study had been limited to textbooks intended for either junior or the senior high school use.

Lynn M. Barrett, in the November issue of *University High School Journal* (California), presents pertinent data, in outline form, on "Six Standard Tests for the Social Studies." Tests for senior high school use are listed according to the following outline: (1) author and position held, (2) publisher and prices, (3) references to periodical literature on the test, (4) purposes, (5) grades in which the test can be used to advantage and actual time limits to administer the test, (6) scoring the test, (7) data on the standardization of the test, (8) material included in the test—kinds and numbers of test items, (9) norms, (10) reliability, (11) uses of the test, (12) defects of the test. The information, in part obtained through actual use, is presented in concise form. The writer includes a summary of the weaknesses of present standardized tests in the social studies, as stated by Rush and Stoddard, by Ruch and others, and by Symonds. There is a general bibliography of nine titles.

How can the popularity of the commercial, so-called historical motion pictures be explained? What is the psychology underlying their appeal? Kenneth M. Gould, in the September issue of *Social Forces*, seeks an explanation and an analysis of the holding power of these films. "Cine-patriotism" is the new term coined for a title, and the writer points out the dangers of the use of "patriotic films" in that "the public school system is open to capture by any 'constitutional league' or 'veterans' club that has the funds to coat its philosophy with celluloid." The Washington lobby now has "its counterpart in Hollywood and its satellites," with infinite possibilities for the promulgation of ideas to influence legislation under the guise of "patriotism." Motion pictures, with 15,000 theatres and an aggregate weekly audience of 50,000,000 people, have become the greatest vehicle of propaganda, while the audiences, with the decline of individualism and the bankruptcy of inner resources, approach "the nadir of credulity." Despite the tendency toward a diminishing rôle for nationalistic patriotism, "provincialism and authoritarianism are the twin idols of the movie ritual."

What is the technique "by which the historical brand of hokum" is made to appeal to the masses through the commercialized "historical" films? An appeal is made to "stereotypes"; the heroes provide an escape from reality; the successful visualization of the past is doubtful; the action hangs on a hero who does not step out of authorized biographies, but on a hero built out of "heart interest,"

"sex appeal," or comic relief. Particular attention is given to catch events and maxims familiar to all boys and girls, based on "the anecdotal theory of history" at the eighth-grade level of understanding. The appeal is to the familiar, and the applause is indicative of "the most primitive instincts and fatuous sentimentalities" of the audience. Pugilistic triumphs, gunfire, heroes who can do no wrong, mass movements, charges and counter-charges, appropriate musical accompaniments are the elements which appeal to the audiences. The writer finally suggests that the Freudians and psychologists, with the aid of the theory and process of the "conditioned reflex," can probably throw additional light on the problems involved in debunking the commercial "historical" films.

From time to time one hears teachers of history exchange opinions concerning differences between boys and girls in their mastery of history. Are there sex differences in ability to master history? James A. Fitzgerald and W. W. Ludeman, in the November issue of *Peabody Journal of Education*, contribute some data under the title "Sex Differences in History Ability." They devised two forms of a true-false test, each form consisting of 50 "fact statements" and 50 "reasoning statements." The tests were administered to 208 pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in two city school systems, seventeen rural schools, and the training school of a state teachers' college. The results are presented in seven tables.

The conclusions are:

"1. The boys of the sixth and seventh grades seem to know more history than the girls, but in the eighth grade the girls are superior to the boys. The reason may be that history interests boys earlier, and that boys learn it easier and sooner and do not strive so hard to review or retain it as girls do.

"2. It seems that while girls learn more history, both fact and reasoning, in proceeding from the sixth to the eighth grade, than do boys, boys are perhaps comparatively better reasoners when the facts known are considered as a basis for comparison.

"3. There is in general a rough correlation between fact ability and reasoning ability. In other words, students who have high scores in fact history are usually good in reasoning history. The reverse was also true. Poor reasoning ability and a low score in facts when hand in hand.

"4. Training school and city school boys and girls seemed to know more history than did rural children, owing perhaps to better equipment, library facilities, and a greater amount of time devoted to history teaching."

In the November issue of *The School Review*, Carter V. Good and Edward D. Roberts present "Curriculum Titles and Curriculum Constants in Senior High Schools." Data were obtained through a study of the titles of courses of study in sixty-five city school systems. For the ninth grade, courses in social studies appear 152 times, preceded in number of times mentioned by courses in English, mathematics, health, science, in the order in which they are mentioned. In the tenth grade, courses in social studies appear 209 times, preceded, in the order mentioned, by English, mathematics, and health. In the eleventh grade courses in social studies appear 281 times, preceded only by English. In the twelfth grade, courses in social studies appear 371 times and English courses appear 371 times. These figures would seem to indicate that in sixty-five city school systems courses in the social studies are offered in increasing numbers from the ninth through the twelfth grades.

The data also indicate that courses in the social studies appear in more school systems in the commercial curriculum than in the academic and college preparatory curriculums at each grade level. The number of systems in which the social studies appear in household arts and industrial arts curriculums is almost as large as the number in which they appear in the academic and college preparatory curriculums.

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The Presidential Election of 1928 (September)

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Pan-American Problems (November)

The Preservation of Peace (December)

Foreign Trade and the Tariff (January)

The February issue will cover the subject of "War Debts and Reparations," and will explain in clear, simple English this complex international problem of economics.

THE TEACHER SERVICE

The weekly EDITORIAL RESEARCH REPORTS are available without extra charge to teachers of fifty or more subscribers to the Student Service. The following reports were sent to teachers of group subscribers during the first term:

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Oct. 31—Social and Economic Effects of Prohibition
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Nov. 24—Business Before Congress
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"The Labor Turnover of the United States Congress," by Ralph and Mildred Fletcher, published in the September issue of *Social Forces*, is an historical study of the new personages added to the list of law-makers who frequently and at regular intervals appear in Washington. A detailed table, from First Congress through the Sixty-ninth Congress, and two charts include the data of the study. There is no significant relation between the turnover and economic conditions, but there is a decreasing fluctuation in membership during later years. Increased turnover in the House membership during the last sixty-five years in non-presidential years may indicate disappointment with the administration or more independent nomination and voting. "Popular election of Senators does not seem to have changed the amount of turnover, although two of the three instances in which the turnover of the Senate exceeded that of the House have occurred since 1914."

New York State Education, during this school year, is publishing a series of short articles on the contributions which different subjects may make toward meeting the objectives of secondary education. In the December issue there is a series of brief articles, entitled, "Why Teach Social Studies in a New York State High School?" contributed by Ruth E. Pitt, Grace Taylor, Jennie L. Pingrey, Alice N. Gibbons, and W. G. Kimmel. The contributors—two heads of well-organized departments, two teachers who have developed effective laboratories, and the State Supervisor—present statements of objectives and values of the social studies, if effectively taught, which are expressed in terms familiar to progressive teachers of the social studies. International understanding, along with the development of traits necessary to its attainment, is listed as an important goal in instruction.

An abstract of an article by Fowler D. Brooks and S. Janet Brooks, which appeared in these columns in the January issue, referred to the data found in a doctor's dissertation. A copy of the dissertation has now been received: Sarah Jane Bassett, *Retention of History in the Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grades, With Special Reference to the Factors That Influence Retention*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1928. \$1.75. Copies of the tests used in the investigation are published in complete form. There is a ten-page bibliography.

In the November issue of *Peabody Journal of Education*, Alice M. Kroekowizer contributes "Geography and World Affairs, A Classroom Enterprise." A class studying Latin-America paid close attention to the Pan-American Conference held in Havana. Two classes, one studying South America and the other Africa, presented a program to each other. The most successful enterprise was a World Federation Conference, including an assembly program in the form of a banquet at which there were toasts, using "real grape juice" (*sic*). A verbatim report of the toasts is given. The writer cites these activities as attempts to introduce the human element in the teaching of geography.

A publication of more than usual interest to teachers of the social studies is *Social Science Abstracts*. For some years plans for the launching of this publication has been in the process of formulation by the different national organizations interested in the social sciences and by the Social Science Research Council. The purpose of *Social Science Abstracts* "is to provide brief summaries of new material as promptly as possible after publication and thus to help readers keep abreast of the rapidly increasing output of new work."

A wide range of important subject-matter in some twenty-three languages in several thousand periodicals will be canvassed, and at the beginning the total number of abstracts published yearly will not exceed 15,000. Abstracts will be limited to 150 words. The subscription is \$6.00 per year, including annual indexes. Address: 611 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City.

Needless to say, this publication will be of inestimable

value to all busy and progressive teachers of the social studies, many of whom do not have ready access to a large number of publications and who have a working knowledge of only one language.

A description and a critique of tests and measurements in history and civics and geography is found in H. L. Smith and W. W. Wright, *Tests and Measurements* (Silver, Burdett & Co., 1928), chapters X, XI. Current statements of objectives; data on correlations, validity, and reliability; bibliographies on the use of tests and scales are included in each chapter.

In the chapter on "History and Civics" the authors mention some of the advantages, disadvantages, and problems of an integrated social studies program.

Teachers of Modern World History will find *Bulletin and Italiana* (Italy-America Society, 25 West 43d Street, New York City) a handy publication. The summaries of current news events and excellent bibliographies will save considerable time for teachers and pupils. *Bulletin and Italiana* is published monthly; the subscription is \$2.00 per year.

Among the activities of the United States Bicentenary Commission for the celebration of the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of George Washington is included the project for the publication, by the Government, of a complete, definitive edition of the writings of Washington. It seems not to be known generally that the standard editions of Washington's writings (the first by Jared Sparks in the 1830's and the second by Worthington C. Ford in the 1880's) do not, together, include more than 50 per cent. of Washington's letters. Ford, by a greater accuracy of text and by publishing many letters omitted by Sparks, attempted to atone for the deficiencies of the Sparks edition, but, owing to commercial exigencies, which held the publication to a limit of 14 volumes, Ford was forced to omit many of the documents which Sparks had published. The result, while a great advance over the value of Sparks' 12 volumes, was still far from complete, although for years the Ford edition has been the recognized standard. Both Ford and Sparks are now out of print and unobtainable, except through second-hand book dealers and at an almost prohibitive price. The Bicentenary Commission proposes to issue its publication at cost price and to make every effort to secure a wide distribution to the end that the real man, George Washington, may be better and more widely understood throughout the country. This Bicentenary definitive edition will run to 25 volumes at least, in order to insure that all of Washington's letters, both printed and unprinted, will be included. Professor Albert Bushnell Hart is Historian of the Commission, at the head of which is the President of the United States, the Vice-President and the Speaker of the House, and the editorship of the Washington Writings will be entrusted, under him, to Dr. John C. Fitzpatrick, who edited the complete edition of the George Washington Diaries.

The appropriation for this important and distinctively American work has passed the Senate, but is in danger of being caught in the coming legislative jam in the House, which always occurs at the end of a session. It would help the Commission if the readers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* would write to their Congressmen urging the speedy passage of the Fess Bill to publish the Writings of George Washington, which carries the appropriation needed to start this publication which will place the complete edition of the Writings of George Washington easily within the reach of everyone.

It is quite true that the letters written by George Washington which have not heretofore been published are, many of them, quite as important and valuable, historically, as those that have been printed, and there is nearly as much interesting information about the Father of His Country to be found in the unpublished as among the published writings.

The "Seminar in Mexico," the fourth annual session of which will be held in Mexico City, July 13-August 3, 1929, is under the auspices of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin-America, of which John Dewey is Honorary Chairman, Henry Goddard Leach is Chairman, Catharine Waugh McCulloch and John A. Lapp are Vice-Chairmen, and Walter Frank is Treasurer. This committee seeks to further mutual understanding and appreciation between the peoples of the Americas.

The program of the Seminar will include general lectures on the life of Mexico, to be given by leaders in the political, business, and cultural life of the country; round-table discussions specializing upon various phases of Mexico; lectures upon the historical and archeological backgrounds of Mexico; trips to nearby cities and towns. Ample time will be allowed for rest and recreation.

The membership of the Seminar is limited to those whose business or professional connections equip them to contribute to the discussions and enable them to reach a large audience upon their return. Applications for membership should be sent to Hubert C. Herring, 307 East 17th Street, New York City.

The Publishers' Weekly, issue of May 12th, contains a useful check list of decorative maps. All kinds and types of decorative maps have been published, due to popular interest and demand, but they vary in quality and legibility, to say nothing of accuracy. Maps listed vary in price from \$1.00 to \$15.00. Most of them may be obtained from R. R. Bowker & Co., 62 West 45th Street, New York City. Decorative maps are useful in social studies classrooms and libraries; they add tone and color to the rooms and appeal to children.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, has issued a list of annual lectures of interest to school people. The list was reprinted in the *Bulletin of High Points* (New York City high schools). A large number of the lectures are of direct or incidental interest to teachers of the social studies.

The annual meeting of the Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers was held at Des Moines, November 8th-9th. The program of the first session included: Dr. W. T. Root, "A New Outlook Upon the American Colonial Era"; Dr. Earle D. Ross, "The Supposed Indefiniteness of the Social Studies"; Irene M. Coons, "Methods in Current Events for High Schools." At the luncheon conference the next day the President, E. M. Eriksson, of Coe College, gave his address, "New Viewpoints on the Jacksonian Era." The afternoon program included: Ray H. Bracewell, "A Three-Year Required Course in the Field of History and the Social Sciences"; Dr. I. H. Hart, "The New State Course of Study in History." The number present at the different sessions—200, 100, and 225 persons.

The Third Vienna Summer School at the University of Vienna will convene from July 17 to August 13, 1929. Courses of interest to teachers of the Social Studies will include: history, politics, economics, education, and individual psychology. Students of the Summer School will receive free Austrian visas and reductions in fares on the Austrian railways. For further information apply to The Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City, or to The Austro-American Institute of Education, I., Elisabethstrabe 9, Vienna, Austria.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Recent American Biographies

- Abraham Lincoln, 1809-1858.* By Albert J. Beveridge. Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1928. Vol. I, xviii, 607 pp.; Vol. II, vii, 741 pp.
- The Life and Times of John England. First Bishop of Charleston (1786-1842).* By Peter Guilday. The America Press, New York, 1927. Vol. I, x, 596 pp.; Vol. II, 577 pp.
- The Life and Works of Francis Hopkinson.* By George Everett Hastings. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926. xi, 517 pp.
- The Life of George Rogers Clark.* By James Alton James. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1928. xiii, 534 pp.
- George Washington, Colonial Traveller, 1732-1775.* By John C. Fitzpatrick. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1927. xiv, 416 pp.
- Fray Juan Crespi. Missionary Explorer on the Pacific Coast, 1769-1774.* By Herbert Eugene Bolton. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1927. lxiv, 402 pp.
- Thomas Paine, Prophet and Martyr of Democracy.* By Mary Agnes Best. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1927. viii, 413 pp.
- D. L. Moody, A Worker in Souls.* By Gamaliel Bradford. George H. Doran Company, New York, 1927. xi, 320 pp.
- The Portrait of a Banker: James Stillman, 1850-1918.* By Anna Robeson Burr. Duffield Company, New York, 1927. ix, 370 pp.
- Jay Gould. The Story of a Fortune.* By Robert Irving Warshaw. Greenberg, Publisher, Inc., New York, 1928. 200 pp.
- Sam Houston, Colossus in Buckskin.* By George Creel. Cosmopolitan Book Corporation, New York, 1928. 341 pp.

In recent years both student and general reader have been literally inundated by the enormous flood of diaries,

letters, memoirs, and biographies which have come from the American press. Instead of showing any signs of slackening, the output is at present apparently on the increase. In literary and historical quality it varies all the way from utter trash and superficial laudatory characterization to works of highest merit. While the volumes here reviewed differ widely, all, with one or two exceptions, are contributions which deserve to be read.

The late Senator Beveridge's two volumes on Lincoln, like his earlier ones on John Marshall, are masterpieces of historical scholarship and interpretation. Not content with what others had done, Mr. Beveridge read everything, both published and unpublished, relating to Lincoln and to the times in which he lived. The results of his extensive research he evaluated and arranged with meticulous care. Indeed, nowhere in these volumes is the author guilty of drawing conclusions or making interpretations upon insufficient data. "Facts when justly arranged," said he, "interpret themselves. They tell the story. For this purpose a little fact is as important as is what is called a big fact. The picture may be well-nigh finished, but it remains vague for want of one more fact. When that missing fact is discovered all others become clear and distinct; it is like turning a light properly shaded upon a painting which but a moment before was a blur in the dimness." This statement epitomizes Mr. Beveridge's historical creed. Nothing was taken for granted; no essential fact was omitted. Yet he never allowed a multiplicity of details to cloud his canvas, and his chapters give ample evidence of his skill in making every fact fit into its proper niche.

Mr. Beveridge intended that the two volumes under review should carry the story to Lincoln's inauguration as President in 1861. Unfortunately, death prevented the materialization of this plan, and the second volume therefore ends with a summary of the Lincoln-Douglas debates, which, however, are supplemented with a brief sketch of the years 1859-1861. No one can read these pages without realizing the great loss sustained by American historiography in Mr. Beveridge's untimely passing. His Lincoln is

no mythical personage, but a human being whose destinies were so largely shaped by the environment of his times. So thoroughly did Mr. Beveridge perform his task that the historical soil from which the materials for these two volumes were garnered will not have to be again cultivated as far as Lincoln is concerned.

Father Guilday's monumental volumes on the life and times of John England, the first Roman Catholic bishop of Charleston, belongs in the same category as does Beveridge's Marshall and Lincoln. In his prefatory note Father Guilday tells us that his purpose in writing these volumes was not merely to reawaken interest in John England and in his writings, but also to give the reader of today some notion of the problems with which the outstanding apologist of the Catholic faith in this country had to contend, and of his high-minded liberalism, his generous tolerance, and widespread influence. Consequently, these volumes constitute not only an important chapter in the history of the Catholic Church in America, but also a very significant addition to our growing literature of social history. Chapter five of volume one, entitled, "The Catholic Church in the Southland," for example, contains among other things an admirable résumé of the reasons why Catholicism made slow headway in the South up to the American Civil War. In fact, it helps to explain why certain sections of the South even today are strongly anti-Catholic. In like manner, chapter twenty-three in volume two, "Catholic Education and Social Welfare," is invaluable to the student of social history. Father Guilday's researches have been exhaustive, and in assembling his material he has whenever possible quoted liberally from source material. In this connection mention should be made of the valuable bibliographical essay appended to volume two. Both of these volumes, like the author's *Life and Times of John Carroll, 1735-1815*, are tributes to Father Guilday's meticulous and unbiased scholarship. Both he and those who supported him in this enterprise deserve high commendation.

Mr. Hastings' volume on Francis Hopkinson had its inception as a doctoral thesis at Harvard University in 1917-18. Hopkinson, who John Adams described as "one of your pretty, little, curious, ingenious men," with a head no larger than an apple, was born in 1737 and died in 1791. Mr. Hastings shows him to have been one of the most versatile of men. As a young man he practiced law, then entered politics, holding successively offices in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and in 1776 became a member of the Continental Congress. During the Revolution he was chairman of the board which executed the business of the American navy; subsequently he held office in the loan division of the Federal treasury, and still later held a United States District Court judgeship. In addition to these activities he dabbled in science, was an inventor of considerable reputation, a skillful draftsman, and a clever maker of pastel portraits; he played the organ and the harpsichord, composed music for these instruments, wrote hymns, published a book of song, and wrote reams of poems, essays, and political squibs. A few months prior to his death, the University of Pennsylvania conferred upon him the degree of LL.D., and the American Philosophical Society awarded him the Magellanic Prize Medal for the invention of mechanism for the improvement of sailing vessels. Dr. Hastings' portrayal of this little-known artist, musician, scientist, jurist, and man of letters is a most creditable one. Every person anxious for greater familiarity with the period of Hopkinson's life should read this book.

In Professor James' *The Life of George Rogers Clark* we have for the first time a thoroughly unbiased account of that distinguished Virginian who, perhaps more than any other man, was responsible for the winning of the Trans-Allegheny West. Twenty-odd years ago Professor James, at the suggestion of the Illinois State Historical Society, began to collect the letters pertaining to the career of Clark. In 1912 the first volume of the *George Rogers Clark Papers*, prepared by Professor James, was published. A second volume, covering the years 1781 to April, 1784, appeared in 1926. Material for three additional volumes has been transcribed. These, together with the famous Draper manuscripts, constitute the basic sources for this volume.

With no axe to grind and under no obligations to defend or to eulogize, Professor James has told a straightforward, sympathetic story. Anyone who reads it can readily understand why Clark fell a victim to the machinations of the notorious James Wilkinson, and why he did certain other things for which he was severely condemned by his contemporaries and by posterity.

Appendices give Clark's memoir, his letter on the Mound Builders, his correspondence relative to improvement in river navigation, the speech of Chief Logan and Clark's letter on the same, and his letters pertaining to his relations with the French Government in 1798-1799. The book is a model of what a biography ought to be.

Dr. Fitzpatrick's scholarly volume supplies a detailed record of Washington from the day of his birth to June 15, 1775, when he became Commander-in-Chief of the Continental armies. Not only does it supplement the Washington *Diaries* previously edited by Dr. Fitzpatrick, but even more important, it fits in perfectly with the two volumes covering Washington's life from 1775 to his death in 1799, prepared by the late William Spohn Baker and published in 1892 and 1898 as the *Itinerary of General Washington from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783, and Washington After the Revolution, 1784-1799*. The material, which has been drawn from every conceivable source, is carefully arranged and elucidated by copious notes. It explodes several of the anecdotes regarding Washington's early life and throws new light on many events connected with his young manhood. Hereafter no biographer of Washington can afford to ignore the mass of valuable and authenticated information which this volume contains.

In bringing together in one volume the letters and diaries of that remarkable missionary-explorer, Father Crespi, Professor Bolton has rendered a real service not only to Californians, but to every student interested in the colonial history of the Southwest. Father Crespi was a member of the Portola, Fages, and Perez expeditions, and his accounts of each are monumental sources of information. Professor Bolton's twenty-odd page introduction gives the volume an admirable setting.

Miss Best's life of Paine is to all intents and purposes a fresh interpretation and an eulogy of the great apostle of democracy. She brings forth no new facts; it was not her purpose to do so. She is anxious that her countrymen understand and appreciate Paine. Indeed, her volume is the best kind of antidote for those who still believe, as did President Roosevelt, that Paine was a dirty little atheist. Miss Best shows that Paine, instead of living ahead of his time, was, to use her own figure of speech, one of those "robust personalities who launched new freedoms on the stream of time." The book deserves to be widely read.

Very similar to Miss Best's volume on Paine is Mr. Bradford's work on the great evangelist, Dwight Lyman Moody. It is an interpretative study rather than a fact-piling, exhaustive biography; in other words, the woods rather than the myriad trees which compose it stand forth. We see the burly, energetic Moody, whose religion was founded on a purely emotional, rather than on a rational, basis; a Moody who never doubted a word of the Bible, whose God was like himself, "stout, substantial, justice-dispensing, loving, and hating, seated on a perfectly concrete throne in a perfectly concrete heaven" (p. 80); a Moody who could stir a vast audience by his own unaided power, whose personality moved men to do his bidding in the world of practical affairs, and who could bring man to God and God to man. Mr. Bradford paints in bold strokes, and this volume helps us to better understand Moody, his times, and his accomplishments.

In presenting a portrait of the elder Stillman—and Mrs. Burr states very frankly at the outset that it is a portrait and not an historical painting—she has entered an almost untilled field of historical endeavor: namely, a study of those personages who have been so instrumental in shaping the world of affairs. For this she is to be congratulated. She selected James Stillman, she tells us, because his manner and character "offered a perpetual enigma to the world and challenge to the biographer...." All statements of fact, she further tells us, came from an authoritative source,

but, with very few exceptions, the source is not revealed. Perusing page after page of the narrative, one gets the impression that there is something lacking. One wonders whether Mr. Stillman was after all so spotless and impeccable; perhaps he was, perhaps he was not. One thing is certain, however: Mrs. Burr paints an unblemished portrait, and Stillman emerges from her pages as a virtuous man, who, unlike his Wall Street contemporaries, always sought for something more than wealth. Despite this feeling that the portrait is wanting in certain lights and shades, Mrs. Burr has performed a most useful service; she has blazed a trail for others, who, it is hoped, will follow more minutely the side paths and by-ways of James Stillman's life and career.

Robert Irving Warshaw's monograph on Jay Gould is interesting, but contains nothing that was not already known about Gould and his methods. It is chiefly valuable in bringing together the episodes which made Gould the wealthiest, the most-feared, and most-hated man of his time. The last pages—an "Imaginary Conversation"—is an attempt to present in brief outline Gould's philosophy of life.

It is unfortunate that George Creel did not see fit to give the reader some clue to the materials out of which he constructed his informing and interesting volume on Sam Houston. It is also unfortunate that the volume should be marred by the author's seeming anti-Mexican bias. Careful research on the part of such distinguished scholars as Justin H. Smith long ago exploded the myth that all Mexicans, even of Sam Houston's day, were desperadoes, bandits, and murderers. Aside from these shortcomings, the volume gives a well-balanced account of Houston's life and of the part he played in shaping the history of the Southwest.—C.

Side Lights on American History. By Henry William Elson. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928. Vol. 1, 349 pp.

The United States. (Book Four of the Human Geography by Grade Series.) By James Fairgrieve and Ernest Young. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1925. 469 pp.

United Britain, Political and Economic History from James I to the Present Day. (Book V of the Grip-Fast History Books.) By Susan Cunningham. Longmans, Green & Company, London, 1925. 219 pp.

The Texas Ranger. By James B. Gillett and Howard R. Driggs. The World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1927. 218 pp.

In Old California. By Edith Kirk Fox. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. 158 pp.

The first of this miscellany, *Side Lights on American History*, by Henry William Elson, will find a welcome in both home and school libraries. It is an able treatment of various, well-chosen topics in American history from colonial times to the Civil War. No attempt has been made to write a complete or connected history of the time—such a purpose would have produced a volume far too large for convenience or else devoid of those illuminating incidents and descriptions whose omission makes history seem inhuman except to ardent devotees. Emotions are not neglected as unworthy of serious consideration, and there is a palatable seasoning of adjectives. It serves a purpose similar to the "Source Books" and "Readings" so often found in school libraries, without their upsetting changes of viewpoint and phraseology. This book is not of uniform character, however. The boy who revels in the account of the Lewis and Clark Expedition will probably skip the chapter on the framing of the Constitution, and even the adult mind is likely to feel a jolt in moving from the fascinating narratives of the Indians to the more labored treatment of the French and Indian War.

The book is based upon the 1899 edition, with several additional chapters, as well as a revision of the old. Its physical appearance is about as good as it could be without pictures or other graphic aids. It has an index.

The United States, by James Fairgrieve and Ernest

Young, is like many health foods—very good for you, but not especially tempting. The material is well selected and on the whole clearly presented; in fact, if a fifth-grade child, for whom this book is intended, had previously had his interest aroused in the occupations prevalent in different parts of the United States, he would doubtless enjoy finding the answers to his inquiries here. There are a few very apt sentences as, "It is the story of how man tries to make himself as comfortable as he can with the things he has at hand." But a didactic tone and a too-adult vocabulary, which occasionally appear, as well as a lack of good topical emphasis, combine to produce a book which the juvenile mind probably would not wrestle with of its own volition. At times the arrangement is confusing, as "oil" in the chapter on "cattle and milk," but this is difficult to avoid, of course, when the complexity of twentieth-century life is added to the complexity of nature.

The map work presented is modern in method—problems for the pupil to solve, rather than copying and drill. The general appearance of the book is good. It is indexed.

United Britain, Political and Economic History from James I to the Present Day, by Susan Cunningham, is a fairly adequate textbook for the instruction of young Englishmen in their country's past. After you have become accustomed to the rather stupidly selected chronological tables at the beginning of each chapter, and have given up expecting a fresh, integrating point of view or organization, and settle down to the idea that it's the same old thing, you find it pretty good reading. It is in general so fairly written that the English child might show it to his American or South African cousin without starting hostilities, though certain items, such as the Crimean War, are so treated as not to hurt English consciences. Besides the usual political and military chronicleings, there are some very interesting descriptions of economic and social life, but there are many generals named, and only one inventor. The style is somewhat condescending to the youth of the reader.

There are good suggestions of episodes suitable for class acting. The book is amply illustrated, although reproductions of old engravings, of which there are many, do not always interest children. The general appearance of the book is good.

The Texas Ranger, by James B. Gillett and Howard R. Driggs, is one of the *Pioneer Life Series*. Like its companion volumes, it is the sort of book usually recommended for boys, but read by girls and adults as well. It consists of the actual experiences of a member of the now almost extinct ranger species, written by this frontiersman in collaboration with a professor of English. Apparently it is a happy combination, for the stories are clearly and simply told, without any obvious attempt to exalt or belittle the narrator or to exaggerate his dissimilarity to the reader. His experiences, however, are exceedingly different from the reader's, and are interesting because of this fact, as well as for their rapid action. Indians, bandits, cowboys, and bears were component parts of Gillett's life in the latter half of the nineteenth century.

In appearance the book is excellent. It is plentifully illustrated with black and white sketches, which are as vivid as the colorful narrative.

In Old California, by Edith Kirk Fox, is an attractive little state history for younger children. The picturesque tale of California is simply told, with only a touch of that conscious condescension which adult authors almost always show toward child readers. Spanish missions and Spanish ranch life, immigrant trains and the gold rush, and other fascinating topics up to 1869 are clearly and vividly dealt with. In a few cases the chronological order seems to be needlessly upset, as when the Pony Express is described after the Iron Horse, but this does not greatly lessen the value of the book. The contrasts between old and new California are well brought out.

There are stimulating suggestions for pupil activity, such as writing scenarios and making a model of an ox cart, and directions for making cut-out illustrations like those which so attractively illustrate the book, and which, it is

said, were made by three children in the fourth grade.

The book is extremely attractive, being printed in clear and bright, pleasant colors. It is also indexed.

JENNIE L. PINGREY.

Hastings-on-the-Hudson.

The Rise of the German Republic. By H. G. Daniels. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1928. xi, 299 pp.

As resident correspondent of the *London Times* in Berlin for the past eight years, Mr. Daniels has had ample time and opportunity to study the political and economic developments in post-war Germany. The fruits of his observations are now offered in this volume, which he characterizes as a "separate and detached survey of the German Revolution and its consequences," to such persons as are "interested in the future of Germany as one of the prime factors in the peace of Europe." The recency of the events considered naturally precludes the application of any historical perspective to their interpretation. And the author is an Englishman—though by no means a Germanophobe. Practically the only basis for an approach to the subject, as he points out, is the combination of "personal recollection, experience, and enquiry." The numerous apologia which have been flooding Germany since 1918 in the form of memoirs are frequently more deceptive than helpful. They require patient and careful scrutiny before they can be used to substantiate any view or conclusion.

Despite these handicaps, however, Mr. Daniels has produced a good book. Starting with a discussion of the position of the workman in relation to the War, the author proceeds to describe the discontent and unrest as exemplified in the munition strikes and naval mutinies that eventually found their climax in the November revolution of 1918. Follows a description of the difficulties facing the new liberal provisional government, headed by the Council of People's Commissaries. Hardly had they signed the Armistice when the Commissaries found themselves threatened by a group of radicals, whose program called for the complete socialization of the capitalistic machine and for a soviet system of government. But Herr Noske was made commander-in-chief, Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg were killed, and the soviets were defeated. The new Constitution would be moderately republican. It was drawn up at Weimar. Hugo Preuss was its author. The National Assembly also signed the Peace Treaty. And then President Ebert came face to face with reaction. *Putsch* followed *putsch*. But the Socialist Government triumphed.

In a remarkably clear and simple way Mr. Daniels then discusses the intricacies of the currency and reparations problems. The task was tremendous, but the mark was stabilized. Then the Dawes Plan was adopted. Socialists and Nationalists struck a bargain and voted for it. Then they elected Hindenburg President. The German Republic was being consolidated and united. But it is not yet dear to the hearts of all the Germans. The Republic "was but the despairing gesture of a beaten people." It had simply replaced a particular crumbling monarchy. The monarchical principle still finds many adherents. "A Fascist march on Berlin, as a parallel to that on Rome, is remote but not impossible."

Despite a few weak points the book is really indispensable for an understanding of the Germany of 1929. It seems to me that Mr. Daniels is unduly severe in his judgments of some of the more reactionary and military leaders. Again, the question of Austria and the *Anschluss* receives no mention whatever, though it would seem to merit some attention. And then the concluding observation, that the German people are still rather militant and that therefore it is a good thing that the revision of the Versailles Treaty is in the hands of the former Allies and not in those of the Germans, might just as well have been omitted. But, then, even newspaper correspondents are only human. And, on the whole, the *Rise of the German Republic* is an excellent piece of work.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

History of the Americas. A syllabus with maps. By Herbert Eugene Bolton. Ginn and Co., New York, 1928. xxii, 314 pp. Maps.

Teachers of Hispanic-American history have been waiting expectantly for some time for Professor Bolton's syllabus, and now that it has appeared they will not be disappointed, for the work is as much an atlas as it is a guide to the history of the western hemisphere.

For a number of years Dr. Bolton has held a distinct view of American history. He believes that it should be what its name implies, and not merely United States history. His views have been colored by the Spanish traditions of his environment first in the Southwest and later on the Pacific coast. The result has been in a sense a new interpretation of American history. In stating his views Professor Bolton says (iii-iv): "One shortcoming of the usual first-year college course in United States history given in this country is that it covers essentially the same ground as the courses taught in the grammar grades and again in the high school. It lacks freshness. This element of freshness is admirably provided by a synthetic course in the history of the western hemisphere, in which the United States is put in a new setting."

The syllabus here reviewed offers this freshness. It has grown over a period of nine years from a mimeographed beginning, through the printed booklet stage in 1924, to the present book form. The author has experimented with its contents, revising it carefully from year to year. The course in the University of California in which the syllabus has been used has proved exceedingly popular, having an enrollment of more than 1,000 students in a given year. Incidentally, this same course has provided inspiration to many young scholars who, as Teaching Fellows, conducted quiz sections.

The subject-matter of the volume, comprising sixty lectures, is suited for a two-term course, with two lectures each week. The first semester surveys the history of the western hemisphere from the beginning to near the end of the eighteenth century. The second semester opens with the wars of independence in English and Hispanic-America and carries the story down to 1928. Each lecture contains an introductory over-view of the period or subject considered, a semi-informational outline, and (except in the first lecture) references arranged topically. At the beginning of the book (pp. xix-xxii) is a list of "Required Topical Readings," arranged by months, throughout the entire course. Probably the most important features of the work are the 92 maps, many of which are original, and several of which have been taken from sources not usually available to the student. It is in this connection that one possible criticism occurs to the reviewer: several of the maps, noticeably on pages 15, 17, 74, 85, 133, 185, 188, are either too small for the abundance of detail which they contain, or they are too small to be read easily.

Whether this volume is used as a syllabus by the student or teacher or not it constitutes an invaluable handbook to be placed on library shelves for reference. Used as a syllabus, it should guide many teachers to a better presentation of their subject, and at the same time should act as an important factor in curriculum forming for college history courses.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

Founders of the Middle Ages. By Edward Kennard Rand. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1928. 365 pp. \$4.00.

The Lowell Lectures for 1928 were delivered on a fascinating subject and by a charming and delightful lecturer, if we judge the spoken word by its written reproduction in this volume. The title is chosen with care. Founders of the Middle Ages—not all founders or not the founders—but outstanding geniuses in the literature and philosophy of the Latin tradition of the West. Professor Rand begins his work by stating and offering a solution of the problem of the relations of pagan and Christian culture. So rich in thought and feeling, so beautiful in form, so indispensable as a suitable instrument of transmission, was pagan culture,

that the Church welcomed its adoption, though she occasionally regretted her action and upbraided her charge with bitter denunciations. To illustrate this theme the author introduces us to his friends. We first meet in his company, as we expected, St. Ambrose the Mystic, St. Jerome the Humanist, and Boethius the Scholastic, but then rather unexpectedly chance upon Tertullian, Minucius Felix, Cicero, and Lactantius. There follow two admirable chapters on the New Education and the New Poetry, in which the old and new humanism are skilfully illustrated from the writings of their exponents. The volume then closes with an unexpected but interesting discussion of certain aspects of St. Augustine's thought and their influence upon the life of Dante.

The reader will find little new or novel in presentation in these lectures, but he will pass some delightful hours traveling under the direction of a sympathetic yet critical guide, through a period whose importance and fascination is alas too often now little appreciated.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

For many years one's knowledge of the British Empire had to be gained from rather complacent *apologies* or virulent denunciations. Recently, however, its history has been the field of much scholarly investigation, especially of the various component parts. One of the most valuable of these pioneer studies is Dr. Bartlett Brebner's *New England's Outpost: Acadia Before the Conquest of Canada* (Columbia Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, No. 293, New York, 1927, pp. 291, \$4.50), whose sub-title indicates the subject and main title the approach. Here, in a style that is always graphic and enthusiastic, is recounted the tortuous story of a people somewhat off the beaten historical track. The reader is carried through the maze

of the early settlement and frequent changes of control down to the calling of the first legislative assembly in 1758. Yet running through the maze is a thread by which the reader keeps hold on continuity. This thread is the conception of a people at the mercy of geographical factors, marine, internal, and external. By far the major space is devoted to the period during which Acadia was in truth New England's Outpost. Of especial interest to the student of the American Revolution, and also of imperial theories, is that dealing with the "Rights of Englishmen." Therein it is discovered that many of the forces—social, economic, and constitutional—which were operating to produce an imperial civil war south of the St. Lawrence, were also at work in Acadia. If the consequence was not the same, it was due in no large part to those most vociferous secessionists, the New Englanders. Yet to pick out one chapter, and that something of an anti-climax, is unfair. For this reviewer, whose previous knowledge was based on the trivial generalities of surveys and the poetic sentimentalism of Longfellow, whom our author refutes, this account of the Acadians was an enjoyable voyage of discovery. The pleasure was not diminished by the realization that the journey was chartered by one who had laboriously gleaned his information from the archives.—C. F. M.

Messrs. Harcourt, Brace and Company seem, from the point of view of students, to have a most impressive list of publications. They have added to their prestige by a recent innovation. This is the translation of works on economic and social history by distinguished foreign authorities. This company is not original in such enterprise, for A. A. Knopf has done a good deal of the same sort of thing, but the purpose of this note is to call attention to the excellence of choice in the first two publications, Dr. Richard Ehrenberg's *Das Zeitalter der Fugger* and Professor Paul Mantoux's *La Revolution industrielle au XVIIIe Siecle. Capital and Finance in the Age of the Renaissance*

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(1928, 390 pp.; \$5.00) is well translated by Mrs. H. M. Lucas and is a slight abridgment of Ehrenberg, with omission of the chapters "The Genoese, Spaniards, and Netherlanders," "The Importance of the Financiers of the Sixteenth Century," and "The Time of the International Financial Crises." It is very nearly an essential book for students of the Commercial Revolution. It traces the growth of banking from medieval times, not only through the House of Fugger, but on the European bourses, and it gives an excellent idea of the international financial structures which grew so amazingly rapidly and extended so unprecedentedly far in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. *The Industrial Revolution in the Eighteenth Century* (1928, 539 pp.; \$5.00) is well translated by Mrs. R. V. Vernon, and, in the light of the author's unusual reputation as interpreter at Versailles, presumably his own sense of exactitude is involved. In the case of this volume, moreover, English readers enjoy an amended and revised edition which incorporates the relevant new material made public since 1906, when the original study provoked so much interest and investigation. Captain Mantoux's work is not quite so unique as Dr. Ehrenberg's, and it should be remembered that it is concerned only with the English factory system, but it is probably now the best introduction to the origins of the Industrial Revolution. It carries the reader through the developments in industrial technique and in finance from the old woollen industry to the days of Robert Owen, and it gains greatly in usefulness and validity by close attention to social consequences and to the curious dilemma they produced between "Intervention" and "Laissez-faire." Altogether, the publishers are to be congratulated, and it is to be hoped that they will extend their series. If they do, they might well introduce us to the fruitful and on the whole shamefully neglected field of Dutch scholarship. Both Dutch and Scandinavian publishers have already shown enterprise in working towards inter-lingual publications and reciprocity might yield great fruits.

Anyone who desires to be better informed about the economic situation in Germany at the opening of the year 1927, and more particularly with the contractual and legal foundations of Germany's economic activity and some of the problems connected therewith, will do well to consult the *German Commerce Yearbook, 1928* (B. Westermann Co., Inc., New York, 1928. 375 pp.), edited by Dr. Hellmut Kuhnert, in co-operation with the German Association to Foster Trade Relations Between Germany and the United States. The forty-three essays which comprise the volume are divided into three parts. Part one deals with matters of a more general nature, such as the growth and development of business relations between the two countries, the laws and treaties on which such relations are based, the inner structure of the German economic system, including associations, expositions and fairs, and certain Berlin agencies which serve to promote intellectual and economic good-will between the nations of the world, and especially between Germany and the United States.

Part two describes the facilities of Germany for promoting internal and foreign trade and communication—the German State Railway system, the postal and telegraphic service, shipping and air traffic. This section also contains a very useful account of tourist traffic in Germany—its development and economic and cultural importance.

Part three outlines the present situation and future prospects of Germany's economic life by industries. Agriculture, potash, machines, cutlery, electrical and optical instruments, leather, ceramics, chemicals, paint and varnish, paper, textiles, toys, and movie films are among the industries considered.

The volume contains a brief introductory note by Gustav Stresemann, German Minister of Foreign Affairs. The essays are prepared by very competent authorities.

Cleveland Chase has translated, and Longmans have published, Louis Bertrand's *Louis XIV* (1928, viii, 366 pp., \$5.00). It is cast in the shape of intimate biography for the general reader, and designed to correct the usual hostile

reflections in the enlightenment of Louis' despotism. Its manner is disarming and its scholarship disguised in a way which makes it hard for the reader to decide what sort of ground any given piece of interpretation stands on. The general theme, however, is praiseworthy, a justifiable effort to see Louis in the light of the remarkable advances made by France during his reign. The transfer of the center of European civilization from Spain to France and the unquestioned leadership of the culture centering at Versailles were not attained by accident. Louis ruled France as well as reigned over it, and to him credit must go for the good activities he sponsored, as well as discredit for the overweening ambitions of his old age. The character analysis of M. Bertrand seems remarkably acute and well founded. His royalism is occasionally somewhat naive, but one remembers what royalism is in contemporary France. On the whole, he does a good service and a desirable one to the Sun King, whose rays have perhaps been too much clouded by the hostility of historians who have depended too exclusively on Saint-Simon. The book is hardly serious history and not always interesting, but its tone is a useful corrective.

Houghton, Mifflin have now published in a single volume *Economic History of Europe* (xiii, 813 pp., \$4.50), the formerly separate volumes of Professor Knight on the Middle Ages, and of Professors Knight, Barnes, and Flügel on Modern Times. The result is what is probably the best handbook for European economic history now available in English. Its chief service is that it brings to the attention of the student a great deal of scattered modern research in economic history. The teacher who will judiciously supplement the chapter bibliographies with the publications of importance since 1925 can possess in this book a most useful guide and tool for its purpose.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from November 24, to December 29, 1928

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AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, Randolph G. Pilgrims, Indians, and patriots; the pictorial history of America from the colonial age to the Revolution. Boston: Little, Brown. 222 pp. \$3.00.
- Barton, George. Walks and talks about old Philadelphia. Phila.: Peter Reilly. 349 pp. \$2.00.
- Bassett, John S. Makers of a new nation (Pageant of America, Vol. 9). New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 344 pp.
- Davis, William H. Seventy-five years in California. San Francisco: John Howell, 434 Post St. 500 pp. \$10.00.
- Joyce, Mary H. Pioneer days in the Wyoming Valley [Pennsylvania]. Wilkes-Barre, Pa.: Wyoming Hist. and Geol. Society. 122 pp. \$3.00.
- Loomis, Hezekiah. Journal of Hezekiah Loomis, steward on board the U. S. brig "Vixen," war with Tripoli. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 71 pp. \$3.00.
- Lord, John K. A history of the town of Hanover, N. H. Hanover, N. H.: Dartmouth College. 339 pp. \$3.50.
- Obregon, Balthasar. Obregon's history of sixteenth-century explorations in Western America. Los Angeles: Wetzel Pub. Co. 385 pp. \$10.00.
- Parker, Coralie. The history of taxation in North Carolina during the colonial period. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 188 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$3.75.
- Rhodes, James F. History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850 to the end of the Roosevelt administration. (New edition.) Vol. 9. N. Y.: Macmillan. 428 pp. \$3.50.

Society of Colonial Wars in the State of New Jersey, the. Historic roadsides in New Jersey. Plainfield, N. J.: W. L. Glenney, 916 Madison Ave. 115 pp. \$1.00.

Weigle, Luther A. American idealism (Pageant of America, Vol. 10). New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 356 pp.

Welles, Sumner. Naboth's Vineyard; the Dominican Republic, 1844-1924. N. Y.: Payson & Clarke. 1058 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$7.50.

Wood, W., and Gabriel, Ralph H. In defense of liberty (Pageant of America, Vol. 7). New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 370 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

Bury, J. B., and others, editors. Cambridge Ancient history. Vol. 5 of plates. [Illustrations for Vols. 5 & 6.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 131 pp. \$3.25.

Meritt, Benjamin D. The Athenian calendar in the fifth century. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. 138 pp. \$4.00.

Robertson, J. C., and Robertson, H. G. The story of Greece and Rome. N. Y.: Dutton. 366 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.55.

Sarson, Mary, and Phillips, M. A. The history of the people of Israel in pre-Christian times. N. Y.: Longmans. 371 pp. \$3.00.

Strong, Eugénie S. Art in Ancient Rome, 2 vols. N. Y.: Scribner's. 213, 228 pp. \$5.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Banerjee, Pramathanath. Indian finance in the days of the Company. N. Y.: Macmillan. 402 pp. \$5.00.

Davies, Godfrey, editor. A bibliography of British history (Stuart period), 1603-1714. N. Y.: Oxford. 469 pp. \$8.00.

Dugdale, E. T. S., editor and translator. Bismarck's relations with England, 1871-1890. (German diplomatic documents, 1871-1914.) N. Y.: Harper. 427 pp. \$7.50.

Haig, Sir Wolseley, editor. Turks and Afghans. (Cambridge History of India, Vol. 3.) N. Y.: Macmillan. 834 pp. (22 p. bibl.). \$11.00.

Hall, D. G. E. Early English intercourse with Burma, 1587-1743. N. Y.: Longmans. 284 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

Neilson, N. The cartulary and terrier of the priory of Bilsington, Kent. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 268 pp. \$7.00.

Praz, Mario. Machiavelli and the Elizabethans. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 51 pp. \$1.00.

Toynbee, A. J. The conduct of British Empire foreign relations since the peace settlement. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 128 pp. \$3.00.

Wingfield-Stratford, Esnié. The history of British civilization. 2 vols. N. Y.: Harcourt. 1355 pp. \$12.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

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Platonov, S. F. History of Russia. N. Y.: Macmillan. 442 pp. \$2.50.

Schevill, Ferdinand. The first century of Italian humanism. N. Y.: F. S. Crofts. 96 pp. 65 cents.

Schneider, Herbert W. Making the fascist state. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 403 pp. (20 p. bibl.). \$3.00.

Weigh, Ken Shen. Russo-Chinese diplomacy. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 382 pp. \$4.00.

Wrong, George M. The rise and fall of New France. 2 vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 946 pp. (18 p. bibl.). \$10.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

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Jones, H. A. The war in the air. Vol. 2. N. Y.: Oxford. 526 pp. \$7.50.

Newbolt, Henry J. Naval operations, Vol. 4. N. Y.: Longmans. 425 pp. \$6.00.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Desclot, Bernat. Chronicle of the reign of King Pedro III of Aragon, 1276-1285. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press. 402 pp. \$5.00.

Prestage, Edgar, editor. Chivalry; a series of studies to illustrate its historical significance and civilizing influence; by members of King's College, London. N. Y.: Knopf. 246 pp. \$6.00.

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Lee, Baldwin. Issues in the social studies. N. Y.: Teachers' College, Columbia Univ. 199 pp.

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Toynbee, A. J. Survey of international affairs, 1926. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 578 pp. \$8.50.

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Wu, Kuo-Cheng. Ancient Chinese political theories. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 340 pp. \$4.00.

BIOGRAPHY

Burnett, E. C., editor. Letters of Members of the Continental Congress, January 1, to December 31, 1779; Vol. 4. Wash., D. C.: 645 pp.

Strachey, Giles Lytton. Elizabeth and Essex. N. Y.: Harcourt. 296 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$3.75.

Frederick, Empress. Letters of the Empress Frederick [to Queen Victoria]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 515 pp. \$8.50.

Hoover, Herbert C. The new day; speeches of Herbert Hoover. Stanford Univ., Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press. 244 pp. \$3.00.

Johnson, Allen, editor. Dictionary of American Biography, Vol. 1. N. Y.: Scribner. 660 pp. \$2.50.

Putnam, George H. Abraham Lincoln, the great captain; personal reminiscences.... N. Y.: Oxford. 32 pp. \$1.00.

Sjöström, Ivor L. Handbook of Napoleon Bonaparte. Phila.: Dorrance. 145 pp. \$1.50.

Adler, Cyrus. Jacob H. Schiff, his life and letters. 2 vols. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran. 408, 396 pp. \$10.00.

Nations, Gilbert O. The political career of Alfred E. Smith. Washington, D. C.: The Protestant. 84 pp. 75 cents.

Baker, G. P. Tiberius Cæsar. N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 333 pp. \$3.50.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

Blachly, F. F., and Oatman, M. K. The government and administration of Germany. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 784 pp. (70 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

Chelwood, Cecil, Viscount. International arbitration. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 26 pp. 70 cents.

Conover, Milton. Working manual of original sources in American government. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 178 pp. \$1.50.

Emerson, Rupert. State and sovereignty in Modern Germany. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 293 pp. \$3.50.

Greenan, John T., compiler. Readings in American citizenship. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 452 pp. \$1.60.

Howard-Ellis, C. The origin, structure, and working of the League of Nations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 528 pp. \$7.00.

Lewis, Stuart, editor. Readings in party principles and practical politics. N. Y.: Prentice-Hall. 702 pp. \$4.00.

Miller, David H. The peace pact of Paris; a study of the Briand-Kellogg Treaty. N. Y.: Putnam. 294 pp. \$3.00.

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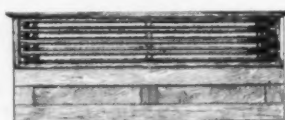
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